The Nation.

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The Week.

Mr. Carnegie's public benefactions come in such swift succession and such large sums that only a professional accountant can keep track of them. They have one distinguishing feature, however. Each gift has a definite purpose in the mind of the donor, and is precisely adapted to the end in view. Money is not handed out indiscriminately. Every dollar is made to go as far as possible to carry out the purpose, and none is to be wasted. The gift of $600,000 to the Tuskegee Institute is an example in point. It is coupled with a condition that, out of the sum named, provision shall be made for Mr. and Mrs. Booker T. Washington, so that Mr. Washington need not spend his energies and the best years of his life in scouring the country to get money for the support of the Institute, and need not be in anxiety for his own family. Declining years will come to him, yet since he has never employed his rare gifts as a speaker and an organizer for his own benefit, he has accumulated nothing. He has refused every opportunity to make money for himself. Although large offers have been made to him as a lecturer, he has always put them aside, in order to give all his strength to the training and upbuilding of his race. He has refused to be swerved from this great purpose, and now he realizes the truth of the sacred text: "All these things shall be added unto you." Mr. Carnegie gives more than an ordinary present to Tuskegee when he gives to Booker Washington the leisure to dispose of his own time for the best interests of his Institute and his people. But it should be clearly understood that further sums are greatly needed. Each year $152,000 has to be raised. The Carnegie gift will yield $30,000 annually. Others should come forward, not only to make up the deficiency, but to secure an endowment sufficient to carry on the work of this great educational institution.

After weeks of suppression, Secretary Root, in response to a rapidly growing public demand for it, has seen fit to give to the public parts of the report made by Nelson A. Miles, Lieutenant-General Commanding the Army, upon the atrocities which came under his notice while in the Philippines. Lest there be any misunderstanding as to how Gen. Miles came to make this report, we would recall to our readers that he was ordered by Secretary Root and President Roosevelt to proceed to the Philippine Islands upon a tour of inspection, and to report in writing as to the condition of the troops, their efficiency, discipline, stations, etc. It was in accordance with his written instructions, therefore, that he composed in Manila this remarkable document, full as it is of tales of horrors, rivalled only by the Spanish cruelties in Cuba about which we went to war in 1898. Now what must be said of a Secretary of War who selects the highest officer for inspection duty, and then, after suppressing the report on the ground that it is "confidential," seeks to prove as he has done, by publishing it, that the General is mistaken in his judgments? Had Mr. Root himself accompanied the report with a statement that Gen. Miles was misled, he would have been wholly within his rights. Instead, he has deliberately gone out of his way to break down the discipline of the service by ordering subordinate officers to attack the veracity of their military superior, or to expose the alleged errors of judgment into which he has fallen. The Chief of Engineers, the Chief of Ordnance, the Surgeon-General, the Commissary-General, the Judge-Advocate-General, and Major-Gen. Hughes, in whose department occurred the worst cases of water-cure (as *proved* by courts-martial), are all called upon to reply to those portions of the report which bear upon them. The bureau chiefs' replies are *embodied* in Miles's report itself; Gen. Hughes's is suppressed because it is "not gentlemanly." To cap the climax, Gen. Chaffee bursts forth in an interview declaring that the report of his superior is of no importance. If this is not military anarchy, what could be?

A detailed review of the legislation of the session of the Legislature which closed at Albany on Thursday is not necessary. Three measures were most debated—the canal-enlargement bill, the excise-tax law, and the mortgage-tax bill. The two former were passed, as unquestionably a majority of the people wished that they should be. The latter died of congenital weakness and early exposure. As for the so-called "grab" bills, designed to secure valuable privileges and franchises by sneak-thief methods, they have all been either killed outright or left in a position where a veto by Mayor of Governor will give them their quietus. This last is, we believe, distinctly the case with all the bills injuriously interfering with New York city government. Mr. Low can put the lot out of misery. As respects measures of taxation and finance, no account of the events of the winter would be fair which did not admit a pretty complete shattering of Gov. Odell's prestige as an authority in those subjects. In his first term, he built up for himself a great and apparently deserved reputation as a man of business grasp and unusual skill in devising fruitful schemes of taxation. Two years ago, his message was a programme of legislation. This year, his message was one long list of proposals which should not have been made, and which, in fact, have not been enacted. All his tax measures have been either abandoned or heaved overboard. His final message on the mortgage tax was filled with pitiable vacillation and confessions, so that it is no wonder the whole plan was given up in general disgust. Whatever credit the Governor may deserve in matters financial comes from his resolute turning, at the end, to economy in expenditure, instead of to wanton taxation, as a means of making the books balance. But this he should have done from the very first.

As was expected, the preliminary report of Messrs. Ford and Berard, the expert accountants, shows that our city bookkeeping is both cumbrous and lax. Different accounts are "jumbled," it says, and the whole system is in need of revision and simplification. Its present complexity and uncertainty almost place a premium upon extravagance, if not peculation. This whole subject has a vital place in the general movement for the bettering of American municipal government. Municipal accounts have been so incomplete, and sometimes misleading, that it has been difficult to determine precisely what has been done with the money of the taxpayers; while the diversity in the methods of bookkeeping has been so great as to make it almost impossible to establish satisfactory comparisons that would enable one city to profit by the experience of others. When the Department of Labor undertook, some years ago, to make a compilation of the financial statistics of municipalities, the officers in charge of the investigation learned that in some cities "no printed reports were available"; while the data secured in most cases were so unsatisfactory that an adequate comparison of the figures was a work of extreme difficulty. The financial statements of some cities have effectually concealed the fact that for a period of several years the expenditures had exceeded the current revenues. The capital accounts of public industries have often been neglected, so that the results of their operations have not been easy to ascertain. It has been possible for disputes to arise over such questions as the increase or decrease of municipal debts during one or several administrations, while important departments of the governments have kept little more than bare cash accounts. Such conditions have served inevitably to impair

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municipal credit, and to raise the rates of interest which cities have been obliged to pay. Political bosses could hardly ask a fairer field for the display of their peculiar talents.

The organization of employers of labor at Omaha, to resist boycotting, sympathetic strikes, and other means of coercion by trade unions, seems to have been prompted by the action of the New Orleans Convention of Manufacturers. At all events it followed very closely after that deliverance. Yet it is not by any means a new thing in the country's experience. There have been previous local agreements of employers to stand by each other in resistance to trade-union tyranny. The great lockout of the building trades in Chicago, which lasted eighteen months and paralyzed that industry, was similar to the one with which Omaha seems to be threatened. It is much easier to utter warnings against these conflicts, to point out the losses they involve, and to show how nicely the differences between labor and capital might be adjusted by boards of conciliation and arbitration; but until these wholesome conceptions are woven into the framework of society so that they will work automatically to some definite conclusion, we see no other course open to the employers than to resist the boycott and other forms of organized coercion by counter-organization. No employer can wait till his property is gone from him before taking steps for self-defence. Long experience has shown that employers cannot successfully resist the boycott one by one. As we understand it, the Omaha employers have merely agreed to organize, as the trade unions are now organized, so that they can present a solid front as the unions themselves do. Perhaps we shall some time reach the happier industrial state which the North of England Boards of Conciliation represent; but we cannot expect it while the boycott and the sympathetic strike remain the most common weapons of organized labor.

In the receivership of the Chicago Union Traction Company, which embraces the West and North Side street railway lines, we see one of the consequences of the failure of the syndicate of New York, Philadelphia, and Chicago capitalists to secure from the City Council what they considered a sufficient extension of the franchises which soon fall in. This was the principal issue in the late municipal election. Both political parties were pledged either to short terms of lease or to municipal control and operation, and these pledges were held in force by the Municipal Voters' League, which has made it possible to elect and keep in power an unpurchasable Board of Aldermen. The receivership has been ordered by Judge Grosscup of the United States Circuit Court as the result of unsatisfied judgments aggregating $1,368,180. The significance of this debt arising against a company which has hitherto been very prosperous, is not apparent. We can well believe, however, that the step was not taken for the purpose of forcing the municipal authorities to make the extension of the franchises which the syndicate asked for. The fact is that the municipal authorities of Chicago can be neither coerced nor bought. The city itself has no money invested in the traction company, and it is not likely that Judge Grosscup's receivers will allow the roads to stop running. The franchises cannot be extended without the vote of the City Council or of the Legislature, and both of these are in sympathy with the Voters' Municipal League.

Ramsay County, Minn., of which the city of St. Paul is the principal part, is about to undertake an interesting reform of its jury system. This is rendered possible by the passage through the Legislature of a bill empowering six judges of the District Court to appoint three commissioners to prepare a list of men who "by education, business habits, moral character, and physical health" are qualified for service as jurors. These are the qualities which jurors chosen in the careless fashion of most localities do not possess. The question whether or not the persons named in the new list actually have the required attributes is not to be left to mere conjecture or chance. The law provides that the fitness of prospective jurors be ascertained by "actual inquiry," for which work of investigation the commissioners are to receive suitable compensation. If, in addition to applying this promising system, the county authorities and judges insist on the performance of jury duty by men thus declared to be fitted for it, the result cannot fail to be beneficial. Many a scheme of jury reform has failed by reason of undue exemptions selfishly demanded and weakly allowed.

Significant of the present attitude of Canada on tariff matters is the readiness with which she has met the increased German schedules by applying her own maximum schedules to German imports. This somewhat abrupt interference with a promising trade of about $9,000,000 a year is perhaps due to political rather than economic considerations. Taking advantage of the present anti-German feeling of the British Empire, the Liberals in power are able to throw a sop to the ultra-protectionist Conservatives without fully committing themselves to their policy. Yet the pressure to increase the Canadian duties is going to be strong. Even a lavish bestowal of direct bounties has not served to abate the protectionist thirst. But it would still be possible, if our Government would assume the initiative heartily, to negotiate a reciprocity treaty with Canada, and it will obviously be more advantageous to do so on the basis of the present duties than it will be after Canada, adopting German policy, has set her duties absurdly high, "as a basis of negotiation." It is in the interest of both Canada and the United States to avoid a tariff war. The duty of making it impossible rests largely with us. And we must bear in mind that we can never get, what so many of us appear to desire—namely, the Irishman's "reciprocity all on one side."

Casual attention in England, and, we presume, in this country, will be caught by the remission of taxation which the Chancellor of the Exchequer is able to announce in the new budget. All told, this amounts to about $50,000,000. Cutting down the income tax by fourpence means a relief to taxpayers of more than $40,000,000 annually, and the abolition of the grain duties signifies not only the removal of a political grievance and a taking party cry—that the Government was responsible for a "bread-tax"—but a lowering of the taxes by some $10,000,000. Here, then, would appear to be a notable reduction of taxation; but the really significant thing is not the amount taken off, but the amount left on. Going back to the last year of the last Liberal Government—1895-96—we find that the total sum raised by taxation was $475,000,000. This year's budget, counting in Chancellor Ritchie's remission of taxes, proposes to raise $723,000,000. That is to say, with the Boer war over and the country again on a peace basis, the expenditure has gone to a permanently higher level. Taxes that went up nearly 50 per cent. as a result of the war, are to stay up about 30 per cent. after the war is over. This phenomenon is perfectly familiar in financial history. Taxation does not, after a war, flow back into its old channels. As Sir George Cornewall Lewis pointed out after the Crimean war, the inevitable tendency of any war is to leave behind it an increase of taxation in a permanent form. It is what John Morley has called the "backwash of war."

We have had ample experience of it in this country. It is not necessary to go back to the period following the civil war. That was an era of extravagance, in spite of the fact that the country was almost exhausted by the long and fearful struggle. But take a later and fresher proof of the old truth. The Spanish war did for us what the Boer war did for England—raised permanently the level of national expenditure, and so of national taxation. For the four years before the blowing up of the *Maine*, the annual appropriations, as printed in the

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Government 'Statistical Abstract,' averaged about $300,000,000. The war drove them up at once to $673,000,000. But they fell back only part way when the war was over. They dropped first to $462,000,000, then to $457,000,000, but shot up again in 1902 to $479,000,000. The last Congress pushed them higher yet. Thus we are in the same boat with England. An "easy" war has fastened upon either country a permanent burden of new taxation amounting to $150,000,000 annually.

Mr. Balfour's retreat from something that looked like another German alliance, in the matter of the Bagdad railway, is ostensibly based on financial grounds. The Government, he said on Thursday, had not found it advisable to guarantee the British capital which it was proposed to embark in that enterprise. This of itself was a sufficiently humiliating confession for him to have to make, since he had assumed a particularly jaunty tone when the matter came up in the Commons on April 8, in regard to the alleged financial difficulties of a "railway which goes through a very rich country." He has perhaps found that the country was not so rich as he thought it was, and has surely discovered a strong sentiment in England against any more entanglements with Germany. The incident may help the Ministry at home—where it certainly needs all the help it can get—but will be apt to make a bad impression in Berlin.

International junketing is seldom of any permanent usefulness—so the myriad entertainers of Prince Henry of Prussia often reflect; but the official visit of King Edward to Paris may prove an exception to the rule. The enthusiasm which will be manifested for the royal guest will be only an official expression of the kindly sentiments he has won for himself during many visits as a private gentleman. His urbanity has endeared him to the many Frenchmen with whom he came informally in contact, and it will not seem ungracious to observe that a legend of indulgence did him no harm in the pleasure ground of Europe. He comes at an opportune time when old grudges, like the occupation of Egypt, have been forgotten, and outstanding disputes at least temporarily adjusted. The mob which sees him pass will perceive that he is not, as the caricaturists have represented him, an ogre who eats Boer babies. It appears that his reception will fairly rival in heartiness that given to the Czar when the Franco-Russian alliance was proclaimed. It will be a distinct gain if the Parisians forget their pet phrase, *perfide Albion*, for there are many worthy causes—notably that of reform in the Balkans—which have much to gain from a good understanding between France and England.

That the French War Office is to reopen the Dreyfus case will hardly be doubted by anybody who has read the debates of April 8-10, in the Chamber. There it appeared clearly that Cavaignac, Minister of War at the time of the Zola trial, had deliberately suppressed a letter of Gen. Pellieux. This extraordinary letter charged the General Staff with forgery. Cavaignac never presented the letter to President Brisson, and, through Gen. Zurlinden's mediation, persuaded Gen. Pellieux to withdraw it. Under cross-examination before the Chamber, Cavaignac avowed this act, and defended it. His reason for failing to show that one of the capital pieces upon which Dreyfus's condemnation rested was a forgery, was that he, personally, was convinced of Dreyfus's guilt. Or, as Jaurès, interrupting, drove home this extraordinary confession, Cavaignac assumed to be "sole judge" of Dreyfus's moral guilt, and took the ground that, though wrongfully condemned, the Jewish captain was yet guilty. It is doubtful if a Minister of State has ever before been forced to so disgraceful an avowal. In striking contrast to Cavaignac's wholly contemptible attitude, was Gen. André's statement that, in view of the charges of Gen. Pellieux made while conducting the prosecution, the whole evidence would be reviewed, and appropriate action taken. But, in fact, it makes little difference what is done by the Government and the War Office, which have, however, given every assurance of loyalty; through Jaurès's indefatigable zeal in seeking new evidence, and his eloquence in presenting it to the people of France and to the world, the Dreyfus case *is* reopened.

At the French Socialist Congress recently sitting at Bordeaux, the question arose of expelling M. Millerand, the Parliamentary Socialist. As Minister of Public Works under Waldeck-Rousseau, and subsequently as a private citizen, he has steadfastly insisted that Socialism must seek its ends not by revolution but by gaining control of the regular machinery of Government. Those who believed with him in the theory of gradual reform were contemptuously called "the yellows" by the revolutionary Socialists —who are "the reds." His vindication by the representatives of Socialists of all degrees can only mean that in France Socialism is taking its place among the Liberal parties, and is ceasing to be a subversive force. The same process has gone much further in Italy and Germany, where the Socialist parties work regularly with the other parliamentary groups, and base their hope of supremacy not in fomenting the war of classes, but in dealing with things as they are. This tendency of Socialism to convert itself into the ordinary forms of Radicalism is a very hopeful sign of the times. It shows that, before the practical work of legislation, the wildest theories yield to common sense; and some day the United States is likely to have more than an observer's interest in the matter, for it is wholly unlikely that the labor movement in this country will end short of some form of political Socialism, if by a slower and more devious process.

The report that Russia has presented severe demands touching Mantchuria, the substance of which is "J'y suis, j'y reste," is grave, but not unexpected. Indeed, the demands embrace something more. Not only does Russia remain where she is in Mantchuria, but she requires China to promise not to admit any other Power into that vast territory. No new treaty ports are to be granted, and no new foreign consulates are to be admitted. From St. Petersburg, however, we are told that, of the eight demands said to have been made by Russia, four are absolutely false, one is unimportant, two others involve no change in previous arrangements; and that the only one which is both new and important relates to a sanitary commission to keep out contagious diseases. Be this as it may, nothing but divine power or an internal revolution of her own can prevent Russia from absorbing Mantchuria eventually. She has the position and the forces to carry out her purpose, whatever it may be, but her policy in the past has been to accomplish her ends by diplomacy. In Korea she avoided trouble with Japan by allowing France and Germany to intervene in an advisory capacity. In the later troubles at Peking she got her standing at New Chwang recognized by promising to restore its government to China at a definite time. She now says that its revenues must be paid into the Russo-Chinese bank instead of the Chinese Customs Bank. Where the revenues are, there the Government is also. But who is going to dispute this point with Russia?

A dispatch from Yokohama says that three Japanese warships have been ordered to New Chwang, and that Japanese feeling is much excited by the Russian demands. For Japan, indeed, the situation is crucial. She needs a field for trade and emigration to the west which the Russians are occupying. She will never again be able to fight to so good advantage as now, when she could make a great deal of trouble for the Russians. But in such a campaign she could not claim the support of England, for the alliance becomes operative only when either party is at war with *two* hostile Powers. France, of course, may be counted out of the folly of taking any active part with Russia in the Far East. Before deglutition, the Bear declares his intention of licking the Mantchurian morsel into shape. Who dares interfere with his feast?

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THE ALABAMA DECISION.

The exact legal effect of the recent decision of the Supreme Court in the Alabama case, involving the disfranchisement of negroes under the new State Constitution, is difficult to determine. It is not certain, from the somewhat confused report of the different opinions, whether the court passed upon the Constitutionality of those clauses of the Alabama Constitution which were ingeniously and avowedly framed to disfranchise the negro. But no doubt appears to be left that the prevailing opinion of Judge Holmes extinguishes the hope of colored men in the South that their electoral wrongs might be righted by the Supreme Court of the United States, exercising its powers of equity. No such relief can be granted, decides the majority of the court. It rejects the appeal of the counsel for the disfranchised negroes—himself a negro, by the way—to "look through forms at the substance" and to "detect and expose fraud and conspiracy and cunning and chicanery."

That this language is not a whit too strong to describe the intent and effect of the Alabama Constitution, will be doubted by no one who has read the proceedings of the recent Constitutional Convention in that State. Discrimination against the negro was written all over it. Not the slightest concealment was attempted. The Convention, made up *exclusively* of white men, though nearly half the population of the State is colored, met under the distinct pledge of successive party platforms to disfranchise no single white man, except for infamous crime. It was boldly stated by one speaker, whose views prevailed, "We cannot afford to disfranchise the ignorant and illiterate white." Another debater declared, accurately betraying the animus of the Convention: "This is a white man's country, and I believe that not a single white man should be disfranchised, and I am opposed to the enfranchisement of any negro in the State of Alabama, let it be *Booker Washington or any one else.*"

Now how did these men get around the plain inhibition of the Constitution of the United States (which they had all taken an oath to support) against the denial or abridgment of the right to vote "on account of race, color, or previous condition of servitude?" The truth is, they scarcely expected to be able to get around it. They were plainly warned that their proposed action would be unconstitutional. Senator Morgan frankly told them that the Supreme Court would be bound to declare their plan null and void under the Constitution, and so, we believe, did Senator Pettus. On the floor of the Convention, able lawyers spoke to the same effect. Yet the scheme was persisted in, and by an intricate and crafty plan of qualifying and registering voters, the end has, in fact, been attained. Under what purports to be an impartial educational and property qualification, every white man in the State, illiterate and worthless though he may be, has been made a registered voter, while thousands of negroes have been deprived of the suffrage they once enjoyed, and hundreds fully able to qualify under the new provisions have been refused registration.

The tricky means by which this work was accomplished cannot be set forth at length here. There was the so-called "grandfather clause." Under it, those who bore arms in the war between the States, or their *descendants*, are entitled to vote all their lives, irrespective of the test of literacy or property. This, by the way, was in flat violation of one of the clauses of the Alabama Constitution itself, which declared that "no hereditary distinction . . . shall ever be granted or conferred in this State." It was confessed that some of these ex-Confederates and their sons were ignorant and immoral in the extreme. One speaker admitted that "some of those people and the descendants of those people carry the mark of rascality written upon their face." Yet all that white riff-raff had to be admitted to the suffrage. One member of the Convention gravely argued that the worst of them had "inherited" the ability to share in self-government, and, in the good old Southern style, he quoted Scripture for it: "I am persuaded that the unfeigned faith which dwelt in thy grandmother Lois and thy mother Eunice dwells also in thee." The solemn President of the Convention cited that text as proof of the "inherited capacity" of the poor and illiterate whites, and nobody laughed. But the rule is not allowed to work both ways. Negroes who bore arms in the civil war have applied for registration, and have been rejected. They were on the Northern side, unluckily. They fought for a Government which afterwards declared them citizens of the United States, though now the Supreme Court confesses itself unable to protect them in their rights of citizenship.

The enormous and indefinite powers put into the hands of the Boards of Registration in Alabama have been a potent means of disfranchising colored voters really qualified. In their discretion, they could register "all persons who are of good character, and who understand the duties and obligations of citizenship under a republican form of government." How easy, under that, for white registrars to shut out negroes! That was in the "temporary plan"—that is, the plan for getting all white men permanently upon the list of voters in the first year. The "permanent plan," which went into effect on January 1, 1903, had special provisions of which the obvious intent was to shut out negroes who might be able to qualify under the general educational and property system. Thus, any negro might be rejected if he could not state, under oath, "where he lived during the five years next preceding, and the name of his employer or employers, if any, during such period." The intent to intimidate and discriminate glares in this provision, as it does in other parts of the sections relating to the suffrage.

Judicial relief from this injustice is denied by the Supreme Court. It declares that the remedy for such political wrongs must be political. That points the way to the next step. Congress must act. It has full legal power to enforce a political remedy. Under the Fourteenth Amendment, it can reduce the representation of those States which disfranchise large classes of their citizens. Still more effectively, perhaps, can action be taken under that clause of the Constitution which provides that "each house shall be the judge of the elections, returns, and qualifications of its own members." The House may go behind the face of the credentials of Southern Congressmen. It can inquire into the registration of voters, can expose unequal disfranchisement, and seat contestants who may allege and prove that lawful voters were deprived of the right of suffrage. In any case, and in all ways, the South must be given to understand that there is a national conscience which will not sleep in the presence of injustice to the negro. He is entitled to the full and equal protection of the laws. The suffrage cannot be taken away from him unfairly. His right to be educated, to improve his lot, to hold office when fit, can be questioned no more than that of any other American citizen. And the sooner the Republican party sets about the work of completing its mission in behalf of the negro, the sooner will it create a soul under the ribs of death.

NORTH AND SOUTH AT RICHMOND.

The Richmond meeting of the Southern Educational Conference, which ended on Sunday evening with a memorial service in honor of the late J. L. M. Curry, marked a long step forward in the movement begun six years ago by a handful of Northerners and Southerners at Capon Springs, Va. At the Athens Conference, a year ago, it was still necessary for the Southerners to proclaim their adherence to the cause, while the Northerners devoted a good deal of time to explaining its *raison d'être*. This year, from the statements of the field directors to the shortest of the impromptu addresses, there were few words wasted along these lines. It was essentially a conference to report progress, and, in many respects, a most gratifying advance. If the spirit and enthusiasm of the crusader were somewhat

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lacking this year, there was, on the other hand, a broader range in the discussions; and some noticeably inspiring and encouraging notes were sounded—principally, it must be said, by speakers from the South.

Hitherto the conferences have dealt very largely with the problems of the rural schools, the necessity of consolidation, of longer terms, better teachers, and improved buildings. This year there were discussed, in addition, such questions as the relation of the teacher to the State; the responsibility of Government for public education; local taxation; the duty of the citizen, and the work of the university in the Southern States. The last-mentioned subject offered a most excellent opportunity for frank speaking, for the thraldom of the Southern professor to Southern prejudice has long hampered and still continues to hamper the growth of Southern colleges into true and broad institutions of light and learning. The opportunity was eagerly grasped by Prof. Edwin Mims of Trinity College, Durham, N. C. Evidently having in mind the case of Professor Sledd, who was dismissed from a Southern college for an article on the negro problem in the *Atlantic Monthly*, Professor Mims made an eloquent plea for academic freedom of thought and utterance, without which no college can hope to fulfil its duty to the community which maintains it or to the nation whose youth it educates. That such clear and fearless speech should have come from a Southern-born teacher is as encouraging as it is exceptional. It would seem to indicate that the broad spirit of the Southern educational movement is already stirring collegiate circles.

A still more striking utterance from a Southerner was the address of Chancellor Hill of the University of Georgia, It dealt with the question of negro education in so broad and unprejudiced a spirit as to delight all advocates of justice to a downtrodden race, who heard or read it. It is not too much to say that it would have been impossible ten or even five years ago. Yet Mr. Hill's insistence upon the South's duty of educating the negro was warmly applauded by the Southern audience which listened to him. It would be well if every white schoolhouse in the South could have upon its walls Mr. Hill's declaration that "the only thing which the South cannot afford in its relation to the negro race is injustice; all history teaches that injustice injures and deteriorates the individual or nation that practises it, while on the other hand it develops and strengthens the man or race upon which it is inflicted." A similar sentence in Mr. Cleveland's recent address in this city would have increased its value enormously.

While these and other speeches of Southern men were among the most encouraging features of the Richmond Conference, it must be said frankly that the Northern men did themselves far less credit. Dr. Lyman Abbott went out of his way to reiterate his assertion that "manhood suffrage means manhood first and suffrage second," and that "no man has a right to govern his neighbor who has not the intelligence and the conscience to govern himself." As with similar utterances of Northern men, these views are accepted by the ignorant and prejudiced as justifying any amount of repression of the negro. "We cannot afford," said the President of a Southern college, "to permit Dr. Abbott to speak as he does; it encourages those who would for ever disfranchise the negro, and makes the tasks of those of us who would uplift the negro infinitely harder."

The greatest danger which confronts the Southern Conference in its annual meetings is obviously the desire to avoid friction and to pour oil upon troubled waters. To express sympathy with the South in its difficult problems, as Mr. Cleveland did, is both wise and just. To allow one's sympathy with the South to blind one to its wrongdoings and shortcomings is to help no one. Academic freedom is to be obtained only by such courageous words as those of Professor Mims, and by public approval of those like him who have in their hearts the true conception of the functions of a university. Justice for the negro is to be obtained only by words like those of Chancellor Hill, and by outspoken reprobation of deeds of violence and injustice. Hand in hand with applause of Southern gifts to negro education, of Southern patience and Southern bravery in facing problems of readjustment, must go wise insistence upon Southern faults and Southern weaknesses, together with reproval of Southern wrongdoing. Otherwise the true aims of the Conferences will be overlooked in the general desire to forget the past and to avoid what are known as "dangerous topics."

"PERSONAL PUBLICITY."

When the Lieutenant-Governor of Missouri, Mr. Lee, went into hiding for several days, after the publication of the bribery scandal in which he was involved, it was surmised that he was a shrinking and sensitive soul. This suspicion is now confirmed by his letter of resignation, in which he says that he surrenders his office out of a strong wish "to retire from personal publicity." Evidently, Mr. Lee is one of those delicate natures never meant for contact with a rough world. He should now be left to that seclusion (with the Grand Jury) and secrecy (in a prison cell, if he doesn't make a clean breast of it and turn State's witness) which he so much craves. His case, however, furnishes an instructive instance on a small scale of what is now going on wholesale at Washington. The overweening desire of the authorities engaged in running down the Post-office frauds is all too plainly to avoid the same "personal publicity" which is so highly distasteful to Lieut.-Gov. Lee of Missouri.

A high official gave out on Monday a friendly account of Postmaster-General Payne's method of investigation. It was to be thorough, but "quiet." He never expected to permit "so much publicity as has been given the affair." His idea was softly to find out who the scoundrels were, and gently to get rid of them, without any fuss or scandal. It was not Mr. Payne's purpose, this semi-official explanation informs us, to "publish from the housetops" all the "various doings of the Department relating to the investigation." It was not that he had friends to protect, but he wanted to spare the feelings of the incriminated officials and their families, and to prevent the good name of the service from being smirched.

This plan of pursuing fraud with felt slippers and catching rogues with fur gloves is said to have had the approval of the President. With him, according to the statement, the Postmaster-General went over the whole situation. Mr, Roosevelt insisted upon thorough investigation, but agreed that it should be purely a family affair, the dirty linen to be washed under cover, and none of it hung out on the line. There was thus to be no offensive "publicity." Before going on his Southern trip, Mr. Payne arranged to have his "thorough" investigation kept under lock and key, and accordingly he was "greatly surprised," on his return to Washington, to "find the situation in a very bad way, and an extent of publicity which he thought harmful." We note, in passing, that the surprise which he publicly expressed at the time related to the charges of rottenness in his Department. He did not then say, as he does now, that he had long known about the crookedness, and had given orders to have it corrected, all as between friends. But it is not the Postmaster-General's sincerity, only his tactics, upon which we are moved to comment.

And the first thing to be said about this "gum-shoe campaign" against fraud in the public service is that it is a policy utterly impossible to carry out, even if it were wise. To say nothing of an inquisitive press, how could the Postmaster-General imagine that he could thrust a quiet hand into a ramified Department, tainted in many parts by fraudulent operations, and pluck out here and there an offender, in silence and concealment? It was certain that he would bring the hornets about his ears. Detected cheats do not take their medicine so meekly as Mr. Payne thought. They fly to their Congressional backers. They complain of "star-chamber methods," allege that they were the victims of spies and informers, assert that oth-

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ers were more guilty than they, and, in general, kick up all the dust and make all the row they can. Obviously, the way to eject a scoundrel from the public service is not to open a back door for him in the night, but to fling him out at the front entrance, with a plain statement of his offences given to all the world. Publicity is the very thing you must seek when turning out discredited officeholders, and the more personal and offensive you can make it the better—that is, if you are really bent on making thorough work of it, and affixing a brand of shame to every man caught prostituting public office.

What we have felt to be lacking in this whole business, from the beginning, is a resolute and uncompromising tone on the part of the responsible authorities. In so far as the President suffers from having an evasive and shirking Postmaster-General, when he should have a perfect *malleus hereticorum* for this emergency, the fault is his own. He chose a man for the office, purely as a politician, not as an administrator. While Mr. Payne was devoting all his energies to making smooth the path of renomination, fraud and cheating flourished in the Department which it was his first business to keep in order. This blow to the Administration is not, therefore, undeserved; there is even a sort of poetic justice in the sight of Roosevelt the reformer, who has undoubtedly done a great deal for the improvement of the public service, now embarrassed by misdeeds in a Department which he sacrificed to political demands. It shows how quick Satan is to catch a saint tripping. The pleasant vices of a reformer become whips to scourge him. But the President can yet clear his own skirts if he will insist upon the most unrelenting and open pursuit of every implicated official. To "mismanage trifles" has been said to be the cause of wars and of the loss of battles. The Post-office scandals are no trifle, but they have been greatly mismanaged thus far. It is for the President to see to it that the truth is brought out, no matter whom it may hurt, and the guilty men punished, whether it harms the party or not. Nothing can so harm it as the Postmaster-General's course of leniency and suppression.

INCORPORATING TRADE UNIONS.

A bill is pending in the Legislature of Connecticut for the incorporation of trade unions. Besides giving opportunity for associations of workingmen to be incorporated, if they so desire, it provides that thirty days' notice must be given of an intended strike on any railway, or public-service corporation, such as a gas, or electric light, or power company. The need of such legislation was strongly suggested by the action taken by Judge Adams in the Wabash Railway case, in which the court granted a temporary injunction against strikers, without any law, but simply on the ground that irreparable harm would be done to whole communities if the movement of trains should be interrupted. The injunction was obeyed by the strikers, and when the differences between the railway company and its employees came up for hearing, the injunction was dissolved. The strikers were then free to retire from the company's service, but they decided not to do so, the interval having been wisely used to effect a compromise. In this case everything that could have been done by the court, if the employees had been incorporated as a company, was done without incorporation; and there are men of repute in the legal profession who hold that it would be of little, if any, advantage to employers to have a law passed compelling trade unions to become incorporated, even if such a law should be Constitutional. If an incorporated company has a fund in its treasury, damages can be collected from it in certain cases; but since the amount on hand at any given time would be at the discretion of the officers, the amount of damages collectible would be within their own control.

In the first number of the *Monthly Review* of the National Civic Federation, Mr. James A. Miller, Chairman of the Legal Committee of the Building Contractors' Council of Chicago, discusses this question from the employer's standpoint, and holds that the latter has all the law that he needs now. What is wanted is not more laws, but the enforcement of what we already have. If what we now have cannot be enforced because judges, governors, and sheriffs fear the "labor vote," what, he asks, is the use of enacting more laws of the same kind?

This number of the *Review* of the Federation contains a symposium on the question, "Should Unions Incorporate?" There are fifty-four participants in the discussion. Every possible view of the subject is presented. The papers are necessarily brief, but in general they are well written from the standpoint of the respective authors. Most, but not all, of the labor leaders who take part are opposed to the incorporation of trade unions. Mr. Samuel Gompers tells us that there is already a law of Congress for such incorporation if the unions desire to avail themselves of it. He advises that they should not do so, although he thinks that the men who caused it to be enacted thought that they were doing a real service to organized labor. He thinks that the judiciary is often prejudiced against labor organizations, and that if the latter had money within reach of an execution issued from the bench, they would suffer in damages oftener than they do now. Mr. Henry White, General Secretary of the Garment Workers, concurs in this view. On the other hand, Mr. Henry Grossman, President of the Ladies' Garment Workers' Union, tells us that his organization actually is incorporated, and has found it much easier to defeat claims of employers for damages caused by members than other trade unions not incorporated. This experience bears out the opinion of Mr. Miller of the Chicago Building Council already cited. Mr. E. E. Clark of the Railway Conductors' Order is not disposed to take a stand either for or against the incorporation of trade unions, but is against compulsory incorporation.

On the latter question Mr. Levi Mayer, general counsel of the Illinois Manufacturers' Association, maintains that a trade union cannot be forced to incorporate. In support of his views he quotes Chancellor Kent and several court decisions, and Angell & Ames on Corporations. But if they could be thus forced, he holds that incorporation would not make the members of a union more responsible than they are at present, except as the union might possess property. Plainly the mere act of incorporation of a body of men united not for the purpose of pecuniary profit would not ordinarily create any more financial responsibility than previously existed, on the part of the individuals composing it.

Mr. F. H. Cook, attorney-at-law, New York, points out that under the law of this State an unincorporated society of seven or more persons may be sued in the name of its president or treasurer, and that the judgment so obtained binds the property of the society. Therefore, the principle of the Taff Vale decision already prevails here. Mr. F. J. Stimson of Boston, author of 'Government by Injunction,' agrees that the Taff Vale decision lays down no new principle of law. In this view Mr. John De Witt Warner concurs. He does not, however, advise trade unions to incorporate. Mr. John Brooks Leavitt, on the other hand, does so advise. His reason is, that he thinks that incorporation would have a steadying influence upon the unions and bring their most conservative and cool-headed men to the front. The Taff Vale decision, he says, "simply applied to labor organizations the same law which has, for many years, been appplied to other unincorporated bodies." Professor Farnam of Yale is of the opinion that incorporation would add to the feeling of responsibility which the leaders would be governed by, and would be desirable in that sense. President Eliot is not in favor of compulsory incorporation of trade unions, even if it were feasible, because incorporation is essentially a privilege and not a duty.

COPYRIGHT IMPROVEMENT.

In the current number of the *American Law Review* is printed the address recently delivered before the Maine State Bar Association by Mr. Samuel J. Elder of Boston, on what he styles "Our

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Archaic Copyright Laws." Mr. Elder points out many directions in which he believes our present copyright statutes should be amended. The substitution of a single term of protection for the present double term is recommended in order to do away with the requirement of a second registration of title and deposit of copies, and with the opportunities which the renewal term offers for unnecessary and delicate complications between the author and his assignee. A longer period of protection, also, is favored, and it is pointed out that Mr. Edward Everett Hale has already outlived the copyright of some of his earlier works, and that James Russell Lowell's earliest copyrights expired during his lifetime. The English method, Mr. Elder thinks, is preferable, namely, to grant protection during the life of the author and for seven years beyond, or for forty-two years from first publication—whichever is the longer term.

A simplification of the procedure as regards registration and deposit in the case of newspapers is advocated, and the protection, which should be secured by the fact of publication alone, "ought to be temporarily extended beyond the mere language in which the news is stated." As great expense is incurred by the Press Association and individual papers in procuring news, "the news itself, the facts stated, should be protected, and not merely the literary vehicle in which it is conveyed," but only for a brief period of time; the public should be entitled shortly after publication to the full use of all news material. Improved legislation taking into account the natural differentiation between books and plays is advocated; and the penal clauses for unlawful representation, involving possible imprisonment, are deprecated and ascribed to the influence of the "theatrical trust." The general lack of harmony in the provisions of the statutes as to infringement and the penalties imposed are dwelt upon, and it is insisted that "the whole system, in the light of its interpretation by the courts, calls for revision."

Mr. Elder has concerned himself mainly, however, with the statutory formalities upon exact compliance with which, under the provisions of our laws, copyright protection rests. He traces the development of these from the English act of Queen Anne (1709) through the copyright legislation of the original States and the various Federal enactments to date, showing how the formalities of registration of title, deposit of copies, and printing of copyright notice have become conditions precedent to obtaining and maintaining the copyright; and he inveighs against these provisions as "so many traps for the feet of the unwary," by which "the person entitled to be secured may be deprived of all protection by the most trifling slip for which he may not be, and usually is not, in any degree responsible." Notable examples are given of cases involving the loss of copyright protection under the decisions of the courts, by reason of failure to comply exactly with the statutes as to registration, deposit of copies, and proper printing of the notice of copyright. Thus, in the case of the 'Autocrat of the Breakfast Table,' the copyright was lost because it could not be proved that copies of the *Atlantic Monthly* in which it first appeared were duly deposited. The copies of Gottsberger's expensive edition of 'The Ebers Gallery' (sold at about sixty dollars) were detained in the express office until the express charges could be collected, and hence not delivered at the Library of Congress within the statutory time, and this delay led to the loss of the copyright. The misprinting of the year date by a single year in the notice of copyright has been held to invalidate the right. The printing of Mrs. Stowe's 'The Minister's Wooing' with a notice of copyright in the author's name before the last chapters of the book appeared in a number of the *Atlantic Monthly* bearing notice of copyright in the name of the publishers, was held to constitute a variance which created a fatal defect. On the other hand, 'The Professor at the Breakfast Table' having been brought to completion in the *Atlantic Monthly* which contained a notice of copyright in the name of the publishers, subsequent publication of the work with a notice of copyright in the name of the author was held to be equally fatal. In effect, an author may be entirely at the mercy of a mailing clerk in some publisher's office, so that if the title is overlooked and does not reach the copyright office before publication, the work of years may lose protection, while the failure of a shipping clerk to see that the copies of the book go seasonably forward to Washington may destroy a publishing right of great value. "It is absurd and wicked," Mr. Elder exclaims, "that a slip of a clerk or binder, or a mistake of the author, publisher, or printer, should utterly destroy all copyright protection!"

The additional prerequisite that books copyrighted must be "printed from type set within the limits of the United States, or from plates made therefrom," Mr. Elder explains, was inserted in the International Copyright bill because it could not be passed without this proviso. The opposition of the typographical unions throughout the country, which feared that the proposed legislation might transfer the setting up and printing of many books to foreign countries, would have been fatal to the passage of the act. The agitation for international copyright had continued fifty years without success, and it was thought best by nearly all friends of the cause to yield the point rather than lose the measure. He acknowledges that much severe criticism has been made upon this part of the act, and, by way of exemplifying the ground of such criticism, states that a recent publication which had been set up and printed in England entailed an expense of upwards of $40,000 for resetting and electrotyping in this country. "The American market, however, is so vast and so profitable," according to Mr. Elder, "that the expense is not prohibitive," and it is now, at all events, he concludes, "too late to consider any change in that branch of the statute."

His conclusions may be thus summarized: that there is need of revision and simplification of the law of literary and artistic property; that as it is the securing of an existing right, and not the creating of a new one, for which the law makes provision, as a corollary the law should liberally protect and not fetter, hamper, or in any case defeat the right. "The basis on which our copyright provisions rest is erroneous. It being true that the author's right of property results from his labor, genius, and ingenuity, and that protection was intended to be secured to him because of his dedication of his work to the public, there is no reason why the security itself should be imperilled by a variety of technicalities, or why the value of the work should be frittered away in litigation on questions which have nothing to do with the real work of ownership." Finally, Mr. Elder contends that "the law requires adaptation to modern conditions. It is no longer possible to summarize it in a few sections covering every thing copyrightable. It should be revised so that protection to the honest literary worker, artist, or designer shall be simple and certain."

THE NATIONAL ACADEMY MEETING.

WASHINGTON, April 23, 1903.

The session of the National Academy of Sciences, which has just been brought to a close, has been one of unusually varied interest. From the point of view of utility to human life, the most important paper was one by Dr. Weir Mitchell, in which he announced the acquisition of an antidote to the poison of the rattlesnake. It was many years ago that Dr. Mitchell originated the theory, soon demonstrated by himself and Dr. Reuchert, that the venoms of the cobra and of the rattlesnake, though they appear at first sight to be as different as possible in their effects, have the same qualitative composition. The bite of the cobra is almost always promptly fatal, without much local soreness or swelling. The victim dies before any such symptoms can manifest themselves. The bite of the rattlesnake is not usually fatal; but frightful swelling ensues, followed by a breaking down of the health, from which the person may not recover for years, or not at all—phenomena only too well known in those parts of our country where the *Crotalus* abounds. Yet both venoms are mixtures of the same two in different proportions. One of these is a nerve poison, acting, roughly

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speaking, like strychnine. If it does not kill promptly, its effects pass off, the matter is eliminated from the system, and that is the end of it. This constitutes nine-tenths of the cobra venom. An antidote for it has been known for some time. The other constituent, which is predominant in the poison of the rattlesnake, acts like a zymotic poison, dissolves some of the fine tissues of the blood cells and its vessels, and in particular destroys the resistance of the blood to bacterial poisons generally. It does not kill at once, but brings about fearful lesions, and lays the system open to all sorts of malignant influences. It is against this poison that Dr. Flexner of Philadelphia, a well-known student of Dr. Weir Mitchell, has succeeded in finding a protective serum which has been tested upon guinea-pigs and other animals, and whose practical efficacy has been demonstrated.

Of a widely different kind of practical interest was a paper by Mr. Alexander Graham Bell, describing an invention applicable particularly to the construction of kites. The idea seems to have been a corollary from a remark of Professor Newcomb to the effect that since the weight of a flying machine of given shape would be proportional to the cube of a linear dimension, while the area of the supporting planes would be proportional to the square only of that dimension, the smaller a flying machine of given shape, the greater would be its proportional lifting-power. From this it would seem to follow that a flying machine or a kite ought to be built up of small independent elements. In order to obtain the greatest three-dimensional stability, the eminent inventor gives to each of the elements out of which the structure of a kite is to be built up the form of a regular tetrahedron or triangular pyramid, formed of six equal bars. He calls attention to this tetrahedral form of elementary framework as recommending itself by its extraordinary stiffness and lightness, not merely for kites, but wherever framework is to be used. It would certainly seem to merit the attention of engineers. Mr. Bell forms a larger tetrahedral element of structure by connecting four such tetrahedral frames so that their bars shall be parallel, leaving an octahedral vacancy between them; and with numbers of such larger tetrahedra he builds various kinds of structures for which lightness and three-dimensional stiffness are needed. In particular, by stretching membranes over all the small triangles that are parallel to two of the triangles of one of the smallest elements, he obtains a kite which experience has proved to be a very light flyer. Photographs were exhibited showing kites built up in several ways from such elements, and in actual flight.

Two distinct studies, of which accounts were given, seem to have been provoked chiefly by the extreme discordances which different determinations of melting-points often show. One of these, by the celebrated chemist, Prof. J. M. Crafts, had been directed towards a more accurate method for the measurement of temperatures up to about 400° C. The proposal was to observe directly the vapor tension of naphthalene, which boils at 218° C., of benzophenone, which boils at 306° C., or of mercury, which boils at 360° C., according to the temperature whose ascertainment might be desired. This method would require, as a preliminary, a very accurate series of experiments to be made, once for all, in order to ascertain the tensions of those vapors at different temperatures. The other study, by Mr. Arthur L. Day, who was introduced by Dr. Becker, and who explained the matter with admirable perspicuity and most agreeable delivery, related to the phenomena of the heating and cooling of anhydrous borax, as the beginning of an investigation into the melting-points of rock-forming minerals.

It appears that if a body with a sharply definite melting-point, such as silver, be allowed to cool, under constant conditions, from a temperature considerably above the melting-point, the cooling proceeds regularly, though at a slightly diminishing rate, until solidification sets in, when its temperature suddenly becomes fixed until the entire mass is solidified; after which the cooling begins again at somewhat the same rate as before. Analogous phenomena are observed when the body is heated from the solid condition. But when borax melted to a thin liquid is allowed to cool to a glass, the only hitherto known form of solid anhydrous borax, the cooling is continuous and without any particular irregularity from beginning to end, the heat of solidification being gradually evolved as the borax cools; and the same phenomenon appears when the glass is melted. If, however, the molten borax during the process of cooling, and while at any temperature between 741° C. and 490° C., be jarred or subjected to other influences which usually induce crystallization, a very marked retardation of the cooling will at once ensue, no matter at what temperature between those limits the jarring or whatever agency it be takes place; and what results after the cooling will be found to consist of a mass of crystals, a hitherto unknown form of this salt. If, now, anhydrous borax in this new crystalline form be heated again, it will be found to behave like silver, having a perfectly definite melting-point at 741° C. Quietly cooled, it will be reconverted into the vitreous form, or, if sufficiently shaken at any point below the melting-point of the crystalline form and above 490°C., it can be recrystallized. Below the latter temperature the vitreous form becomes incapable of crystallization by any means that could be employed. These facts suggest a probable explanation of the discrepancies in the observed melting-points of rock-forming minerals, although there is no reason to suppose that all the large disagreements in determinations of melting-points are thus to be accounted for.

Prof. Crafts gave, besides, another instalment of his researches into the catalysis of concentrated solutions—researches which ought to excite a lively interest among the higher physicists, and doubtless do so. Two other chemical papers were extremely interesting. One of these, it is true, was merely historical, being an account, by Professor Barker, of the researches of the late Mathew Carey Lea chiefly into the mode of action of light in photography, showing how patience and genius had, after a long chase of elusive facts, finally led that admirable chemist to run down the so-called photosalts. Some beautiful specimens of Carey Lea's allotropic silver prepared by him were shown at the meeting. Pure silver of the color of gold, and pure silver approaching the color of copper, are very suggestive sights in view of the chemical relationship of these three metals; silver being intermediate between the other two in chemistry as it is in trade. There was also a whole sunset of gradations between the golden-colored silver and a soluble silver of a purple hue. Another paper by Prof. Barker refuted last year's assertion of Hoffmann and Zerbann that thorium owes its radioactivity (or unceasing emanation of peculiar rays) to admixtures of uranium, thus advancing our understanding of that subject by one essential step. But the interest of this particular point was quite absorbed in that of Dr. Barker's clear account of the whole history of research into radioactivity, beginning with the discovery of the Becquerel rays in 1896.

It appears that the radioactive elements are four: thorium (which has the highest atomic weight of any known element), radium (whose atomic weight has been ascertained to be about 225), polonium, and actinium (both of unknown atomic weights). Specimens of the salts of the first three were exhibited. Actinium has never gone out of the laboratory, where alone it has been found. The radiations of these bodies are of three different kinds. The simplest, known as the β-rays, consist of those particles a thousand of which are said to compose an atom of hydrogen. They are shot out with a velocity of the same order as that of the propagation of light, and are charged with negative electricity. Others, known as the α-rays, consist of relatively large and heavy particles, of slower motion and positively charged. The third kind, known as the γ-rays are remarkable for their penetrative power, their intensity not being reduced as much as one-half by passing through three inches of metallic aluminium. In some of the exhibits they had so shone through a brass stencil-plate that the letters could not be made out on the photographs. The radiations are all invisible, but there are two ways of recognizing them. They can be photographed, and, by rendering the air a conductor of electricity, they discharge any pair of oppositely charged bodies between which they pass in a suitable way. Two of the radioactive bodies—to wit, radium and thorium—seem to emit effluvia, which have the property of rendering any bodies they reach radioactive; so that, after a long course of experimentation, Professor and Mme. Curie found that the furniture of the room and even their own persons had become so radioactive that it was impossible to make any use of an electroscope, and their work had to be suspended. Polonium has no such power of exciting secondary radioactivity; nor has uranium. Professor Barker exhibited photographs which, in view of the circumstances under which they were taken, conclusively proved thorium to be primarily radioactive when entirely free from uranium.

Of the remaining papers, the one most generally interesting was that of Mr. George E. Hale of the Yerkes Observatory, giving an account of his work with his spectro-heliograph, for which the Academy at this meeting voted him the Draper medal, and for which he received this month the Rumford medal of the Boston Academy. It would be impossible to give much idea of this elaborate work without fine engrav-

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ings, for which we can only refer to the magazines; they will doubtless do justice to it. We must limit ourselves to saying that Dr. Hale has found means to photograph, all over the face of the sun, a particular stratum, or rather two distinct strata, of the lower part of the chromosphere, which is that outer rind of the sun whose splashes or eruptions, whichever they may be, produce the red prominences visible to the naked eye in total eclipses.

A paper by Mr. Lewis Boss, a model of skilful manipulation of a vast mass of numerical data, showed precisely the effect of differences of brightness of stars in accelerating or retarding the observed times of their transits. A very elaborate and meritorious study of the tides of the northern Indian ocean, by Mr. R. A. Harris of the Coast and Geodetic Survey, who was introduced by Prof. Cleveland Abbe, gave evidence that the Survey, under its present management, is not forgetting the obligations entailed upon it by its scientific past. *Noblesse oblige.* The reading of a biographical memoir of T. E. Holbrook by Dr. Theodore Gill, the eminent ichthyologist, closed the proceedings very appropriately with a handshake between science and human life. Dr. Holbrook was a South Carolinian, who died at a good age during the war of the Rebellion. He was an ichthyologist of the finest scientific quality, well known to Louis Agassiz, to Jeffries Wyman and a few more, but known to very few even of the scientific world. Forty years after his death the National Academy reads, as it were, the "Siste, viator," and drops a tear over the monument that Dr. Gill sets up over him. As usual, in the hurry of the meeting, a number of good papers went unread.

The Academy added five regular members to their number: Chamberlin of Chicago, geologist; James of Harvard, psychologist; Thurston of Cornell, engineer; Webster of Clark University, mathematical physicist; and Mark of Harvard, biologist. It also elected the following foreign associates: Picard of Paris, Marey of Paris, Backlund of Pulkova, J. J. Thomson of Cambridge, Brögger of Christiania, Ray Lankester of London, Vogel of Potsdam, Pfeffer of Leyden, Mendeléef of Petersburg, Zirkel, the petrographer, and Koch of Berlin. The next meeting will be held in Chicago, beginning November 17.

THE AMERICAN ORIENTAL SOCIETY.

April 22, 1903.

To present and discuss in little more than twelve hours nearly sixty papers, to the reading of each of which were alloted fifteen minutes, was the awkward task set before the Oriental Society at its one hundred and fifteenth meeting, held in Baltimore on the 16th-18th of this month. As was to be expected, some of the papers took more than the scanty measure of time allowed, some were read by title or were briefly described, and some were good-naturedly suppressed. What wealth of wisdom was contained in those thus withdrawn will be discovered when they are printed. To sketch even cursorily the contents of those actually presented requires all the space that can be given to the present report of the meeting. The Society, not being distracted by rival attractions, such as at times disturb associations meeting in the hurly-burly week of festivities and general convocation, held together, and the sessions, five in number, were well attended. A very agreeable feature was the intrusion of an informal sixth session (in the shape of a luncheon and smoker at the house of President Gilman) between the formal morning and afternoon sessions of the second day. The hospitality of the University itself, of the Johns Hopkins and University Clubs, and of private hosts, added to the comfort of the unusually large number of attending members, while the weather, at first anything but oriental, became at last almost springlike. So persuasive were the sun and the voice of the pleader that the Society indulged for the first time in the amusement of being photographed; though some point was given to this performance by the recollection that the picture would serve as a memorial of the Society's sixtieth birthday. For the A. O. S. is almost the oldest "learned body" in this country. Apropos of these facts, it is pertinent, by the way, to bring to the attention of the public the action of a bookselling concern in New York, which calls itself "The Oriental Society," and sends out advertising letters signed by "The Oriental Society, F. Cooper, Secretary." It also gives itself the title "Oriental Society of London," and may be a bona-fide English society, though it appears to be merely a business firm. It has, of course, no connection with the American Oriental Society.

Of the fifty-nine papers presented in one way or another, those on Semitic subjects were in the majority, and several of these touched on topics more or less familiar to the laity. Hammurabi and Moses, the former recently introduced to the public by the German Emperor, furnished the subject-matter of two independent papers by Professor Jastrow and Professor Johnston, respectively. The latter scholar instanced the similar phraseology of the *lex talionis* in the codes of both lawgivers, and from this and similar parallels concluded that, as Israel passed from a nomadic state into the condition of a settled people in a district under the influence of Hammurabi, there could be as little doubt whence the Hebrews got their code as there is in regard to the source of their myths. Professor Jastrow set the date of Hammurabi at *c.* 2250 B. C., the definitive character of this date being especially important in view of the recent rehabilitation of other dates before and after this epoch. Nine hundred to a thousand years are now cut off from periods assumed as certain a decade ago. Professor Jastrow inclined to the opinion that the influence exerted upon the pentateuchal code was less specifically Hammurabi's than generally Babylonian. Courts of procedure and an established legal system must have existed before Hammurabi. But the latter's code, in its cruelty and in other regards, is more antique than that of Moses. In the discussion that followed, Dr. Ward expressed the opinion that Hammurabi unified not the religious, but the civil law. Dr. Ward himself contributed a paper on representations of Ea and Shamash. In identifying Babylonian gods, there are certain types easily recognized, while others are obscure. A seated god with a notched sword and with rays coming from the shoulders is the sun-god Shamash; a god not seated, but standing, with streams of water, may represent Ea, the god of water and wisdom.

Of more esoteric character was an exhaustive paper by Professor Moore on the liver in sacrifice. The importance of the *caput* in divination was shown, and the relation of the parts of the liver was sketched in diagrams. Besides other more technical Semitic papers—by Professor Hyvernat, on the interpretation of Genesis vi. 14; by Dr. Arnold, on a Hebrew phrase; by the Rev. Mr. McPherson, on Is. xxviii. 25 (*sôrah* and *nismân* as kinds of grain), and by others—Professor Price described a pearl cylinder of 2000 B. C.; Professor Torrey exhibited some Jewish inscribed weights from Jerusalem; Dr. Bliss, recently returned from Beirut, spoke of six jar handles (*c.* 650 B. C.) marked with royal stamps and discovered by him in Palestine; Professor Prince gave a translation of the Sumerian Belit hymn, K. 257, than which, in his opinion, "there is no better example of henotheism merging into monotheism"; and Professor Haupt, in a paper on David's dirge on the death of Saul and Jonathan, maintained that there were no pre-exilic hymns and no real psalms of David.

An important paper on religious development was that of Professor Jastrow on the national Assyrian god Ashur. Hammurabi's code speaks only of protecting deities restored to the city of A-usar, the god not being named, which indicates that this title originally referred to the district. On the other hand, *ashur* (meaning 'beneficent' or 'saviour') was originally an epithet of the god who was contributed to the Babylonian pantheon by Assyria, where, in contrast to the Babylonian triad, Anu, Bel, Ea, this divine lord paramount made for monotheism. Possibly in Babylon there was a confusion between the form of this name and that of *asari*, Marduk. This was one of the papers read at the Friday afternoon session, devoted to comparative religion. The first place on this occasion was given to the maiden effort of a new member, Miss Margaretta Morris of Philadelphia, who, in a rapid survey, discussed the development of religion from the point of view of sociology, her theme being that the idealization of the useful explains religious modifications. Dr. Gilman, who at this meeting was for the tenth time reëlected President of the Society, spoke the same afternoon on aspects of the archæological researches proposed to the Carnegie Institution, and mentioned that several scholars, among them Prof. Seymour in the interest of Greek archæology, were already afield for preliminary surveys of work which hereafter might be aided by the Carnegie Institution. In conclusion he remarked that the funds of the Institution were not sufficient to carry out half the plans submitted to it by various other institutions, and begged the public to have patience, and remember that every plan of work must be carefully considered before action was taken.

On the same afternoon was read a letter from Professor Jackson, written in Persia, on local devil-worship, a few first-hand additions to what was previously known about the Yezîdîs; and the Rev. Mr. Oussani described the mourning rites of Arabia. A curious link between the Middle Ages and the present was suggested by the former American Consul at Bagdad, Dr. Sundberg, who gave from personal experience an account of the Salibiyeh, a little known

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tribe of the Arabian desert. Dr. Sundberg made friends with them years ago. He reports that they are the only tribe whose music is European in character, and what they call their "mark" is the cross, though they attach no meaning to the symbol. Their traditions point to their being aliens who came from afar, and Dr. Sundberg believes that they are the last remnants of stranded Crusaders. They refuse to drink coffee, "because they might learn to like it, and then, failing to obtain it, would be the more unhappy." Professor Haupt concluded the "religions session" with a paper on Bible and Babel, pointing out that Delitzsch's famous address contained nothing new, and that only the Emperor's own interest in the subject gave the matter its present prominence. Professor Haupt took the usual conservative attitude of the devout scholar who, undismayed by the results of higher criticism—a term objected to by the Rev. Mr. Ramsey, who offered as a substitute "genetic criticism"—believes that the question of *Prioritätsrecht* is not one to disturb the Christian. The source of Biblical mythology—the cherubim, for example, being originally storm and winds, as the seraphim are serpentine lightning-flashes — does not really affect that which is essential in religion; a view that seemed to give the usual satisfaction afforded by this convenient expression.

Professor Prince's review of recent excavations in Babylon was perhaps the most drastic paper ever read before the Society, which as a rule expresses a difference of opinion in notes sedulously attuned to universal harmony. Yet in this case also there was no lack of unanimity; only it was voiced in emphatic disapprobation of the recently published work called 'Explorations in Bible Lands,' which Professor Prince stigmatized as unfair in so many particulars as to necessitate public correction. The author of this book, Professor Hilprecht, ignores, or mentions only with haughty contempt, the good work of scholars who preceded him, and in ridiculing his former superior violates every canon of scientific criticism. What is valuable in his book, said Professor Prince, is so buried under egotism as not to be recognizable. Professor Price fully endorsed this expression of opinion, and Professor Moore summed up the general condemnation in the sentence: "It is a book no American can read without being ashamed." After this the Society took a rest, and enjoyed the lunch and smoker at President Gilman's, where American relations with the Orient were informally discussed by scholars well able to throw light on several interesting points, not the least of which was the question of the present attitude of the Vatican toward American control in the Philippines. Without violating the confidential character of the remarks made, it may be said that the recently appointed rector of the Catholic University of America expressed it as his opinion that no better man than Judge Taft could be found for the work to be done in the Philippines. "Broad-minded and conciliatory," he is just the man for the place, and affairs there "are adjusting themselves in a perfectly satisfactory manner."

Apropos of our islands, linguistic papers on Tagálog were not lacking at this meeting. One, by Dr. Blake, discussed Sanskrit words in Tagálog; and one, by Mr. Seiple, treated of Tagálog numerals; while Dr. Scott dissected the languages of the Philippines and gave a list of Philippine words in English. Dr. Blake instanced as a curious corruption *lingo*, 'week,' from *domingo* (Sunday), and derived Manila from *nīla* (Sanskrit, 'dark blue'), 'indigo-trees,' and *may*, 'having.' The Sanskrit word for poet, *kavi*, means 'jargon' in Tagálog! Before adjourning, the Society appointed Dr. Gilman, Mr. Rockhill, and others a committee to make to the President of the United States such representation as they may think proper concerning the survey of the Philippine Islands.

Contributions on the Sanskrit side were offered by several members. Professor Lanman presented to the society a finished copy of the annotated Atharva Veda, long ago begun by Professor Whitney. At the close of his commemorative address, others expressed appreciation of Professor Lanman's own expenditure of strength and time on the elaboration and perfection of this work. Professor Whitney left a complete translation of the Veda, and it might have been published at once. The value of this, however, Professor Lanman has greatly enhanced by adding a very complete critical apparatus. A description of the first book of the same Veda, according to the Kashmir text lately photographed (as described in the report of the last meeting), was presented by Mr. Barret, while Professor Bloomfield, in a paper on the genesis of the Sāma Veda, defended the thesis that the Sāman owes its ejaculatory characteristics to its Shamanistic nature, the latter being a hypothesis based on Oldenberg's hypothesis of the ogre-origin of Indra. The temporal ablative in Sanskrit formed the subject of an investigation by Professor Hopkins into the real value of the temporal character of cases in Vedic and Epic Sanskrit. Indo-European philology was represented by two papers, one by Professor Collitz on the status of the *ā*-declension, which he derived from an *āy*-type, thus being enabled to draw a parallel to the earlier (Vedic) *ī*-declension. Stated in terms of classical philology, this is equivalent to deriving the first Latin declension from the fifth; but Professor Collitz's contention affects only the pro-ethnic forms. Another Indo-European paper was presented by Professor Oertel, who combated the conclusions of Knudtzon, recently reviewed in the *Nation* (March 5), contending that the evidence was insufficient to warrant the assumption of the "Arzawa language" being either Indo-European or Semitic, and that the former was certainly not represented on the Tel el-Amarna tablets.

So this report is brought around to Egypt, represented at the meeting by papers on Egyptian stone implements and the transliteration of Egyptian by Mr. J. T. Dennis, and on recent papyrus finds in Egypt by Mr. Seiple; while Coptic words in modern Egyptian Arabic were discussed by Dr. Littmann. China was not on the programme, but, as Professor Hirth was elected a member of the Society, it may be hoped that before long this deficiency in the annual list of papers may be made good. After an exceptionally pleasant meeting the Society adjourned, to meet again on April 7, 1904, in Washington, D. C.

MADAME DE STAËL AND NAPOLEON. —III.

PARIS, April 9, 1903.

We left Mme. de Staël in Vienna. Before returning to Coppet, in the beginning of 1808, she made a pilgrimage to Weimar. How changed she found everything! Weimar had been pillaged; the Grand Duke had been forced to enter the Confederation of the Rhine, and to pay a war contribution of 2,200,000 francs; the Grand Duchess, worn with emotion, was ill; Schiller was dead. Mme. de Staël had more personal troubles: she found in Switzerland Benjamin Constant married to Charlotte von Hardenberg, who, having lost her first husband and divorced the second, had chosen Constant for her third. She was neither handsome, nor intelligent, nor virtuous.

Auguste de Staël, who was only seventeen years old, made a visit to Napoleon at Chambéry, in order to obtain for his mother permission to go to Paris. The Emperor received him kindly, talked with him for nearly an hour, and told him that he looked upon his mother as a woman "who was accustomed to no sort of subordination," and he meant above all to be obeyed. In Paris, she could not help "making pleasantries." "She attaches no importance to them, but I do; I take everything seriously. Your mother would not be six months in Paris before I should be forced to send her to Bicêtre or to the Temple; I should be sorry to do that, for it would make some noise, and it would hurt me a little in public opinion." He added that, with the exception of Paris, she could go wherever she liked. "It is only your mother who finds herself unhappy when all Europe is left to her." In reality, in 1808, she could not travel easily, and was obliged to remain at Coppet.

A great movement was beginning in Europe, tending to a coalition against Napoleon; the Spanish war was the turning of the tide. Madame de Staël was under the eye of the French police; her friends hardly dared to make her rare visits. She felt so unhappy that at one time she resolved to go to America with her son Auguste. In April, 1810, she left Coppet with a passport for the United States; she went to Lyons, where she saw Camille Jordan, and from there to the Château de Chaumont, on the Loire, where she stayed, waiting for the proprietor, M. Le Ray, who was on his way from America. At Chaumont, Madame de Staël was soon surrounded by a sort of court—Mathieu de Montmorency, Elzéar de Sabran, Barante, Schlegel, Benjamin Constant, Mme. Récamier; she invited many people to come and see her. When she paid an occasional visit to Blois, people stood before the door to get a sight of the famous woman. When M. Le Ray, the proprietor of Chaumont, came back, she left Chaumont and went to the Château de Fossé, where, unconscious of danger, she corrected the proofs of her book on Germany. She was very happy there with Madame Récamier, and renounced the idea of going to America.

From Fossé she went to a house near Blois belonging to her friend, Mathieu de Montmorency. It was there that she received the order, signed by the Duke de Rovigo (who had replaced Fouché in the Ministry of Police), to leave, within forty-eight hours, either for Geneva or for Coppet, or

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for a seaport where she could take passage for America. The prefect who executed the will of the Duke de Rovigo had also orders to take possession of the manuscript and the proof sheets of 'L'Allemagne.' Whatever was ready for publication was at the same time seized in the house of her publisher in Paris, Nicolle. The manuscript was saved by Auguste de Staël, a few hours before it was to be seized. Madame de Staël was away when the order of exile came; the prefect, M. de Corbigny, allowed her a few days in which to make her preparations. Madame de Staël, who always hoped against hope, tried again to use the influence of her numerous friends. She asked for an audience of the Emperor, which was peremptorily refused. Napoleon would not believe in the submission of Madame de Staël, and answered those who promised it with the Italian proverb, "Passato il pericolo, gabbato il santo."

Madame de Staël took again the road to Coppet. The real reason of her exile was the fear which was felt of her book, 'L'Allemagne.' Every precaution was taken to prevent its publication.

"The book," says M. Paul Gautier, "in the thought of its author essentially a weapon, political as much as literary, a hardly concealed attack against the Empire, against the spirit of the Empire, against the France of the Empire; a generous book, full of pity for the oppressed, of hatred against the oppressor, animated by the purest and highest sentiments; novel in many respects, abounding in observation, in fine and exact details on the German character, on German literature; a book also of candid enthusiasm, full of grave errors and strange illusions on the state of Germany at the time, on the true nature of the Germans, their patriotism, their spirit of revenge, their hatred, on all those dangerous forces which the author does not seem to suspect and the explosion of which was so near; a book, in short, of which all the tendencies, moral, social, political, literary even, were made to shock, to irritate Napoleon—such is the 'De l'Allemagne' of Madame de Staël. It remains the most audacious monument which has been opposed to the power of a man, against the spirit of that man."

On her return to Coppet, in the last days of October, 1810, Madame de Staël entered into a sort of mystic phase; she made the acquaintance of Madame de Krüdener, of Zacharias Werner, who was preaching the "religion of holy love." She kept up, however, a sort of perpetual warfare with Capelle, the prefect of Geneva, who had replaced the amiable Barante. Capelle became afterwards a minister of Charles X., but he was a severe imperialist in 1810. Madame Récamier, who tried to see her friend, was exiled herself. M. de Montmorency was not allowed to go to Coppet. All the letters addressed to Madame de Staël were opened.

It was at the end of 1810 that Madame de Staël made the acquaintance at Geneva of a young officer, Jean Rocca, who belonged to an old Italian family which had established itself in Switzerland. Rocca had served in the Peninsular campaign, and had been severely wounded. He was handsome, and had about him something romantic; he was only twenty-three years old. Madame de Staël, who was already forty-four years old, fell in love with him. Rocca returned her affection, and they were married in secret, as she wished to preserve her name; they were even twice married—the first time at Coppet, the second time in Sweden. On the 17th of April, 1812, Madame de Staël gave birth to a child, a boy; the *liaison* with Rocca could no longer be concealed. The scandal was such that she left Coppet with Rocca, her daughter Albertine, and her eldest son, Auguste. The newly born child was confided to the care of a doctor, at Longirod, in the Jura. She went to Vienna, to Moravia, to Galicia, to Moscow. She wrote afterwards the details of her journey in 'Dix Ans d'Exil.' From Moscow she went to St. Petersburg, where she was triumphantly received. She there made the acquaintance of the famous Stein. She had two long interviews with the Emperor Alexander, and conversed with him on the interests of Europe. They talked on constitutional subjects, and, in her usual enthusiastic mood, she exclaimed, "Sire, your character is worth a constitution to your empire." Alexander answered her modestly: "If it were so, it would only be a happy accident." Alexander spoke to her with favor of Bernadotte, the "royal Prince of Sweden," knowing well that his words would not be lost. Alexander had twenty thousand men in Finland, and wished to join them to his army; but he desired at the same time to be guaranteed against aggression on the part of Sweden.

Madame de Staël arrived at Stockholm on September 24, 1812. A common hatred united her and Bernadotte; they had once together plotted against Napoleon when he was First Consul. Madame de Staël flattered the vanity of Bernadotte, calling him "the *true* hero of the century." She persuaded him that he alone could stop the Emperor in his career; that he might become the arbiter of Europe. She wrote a pamphlet which was published at Hamburg anonymously under the title, 'On the Continental System and its Relations with Sweden.' Schlegel accepted the paternity of the work, which was republished under his name, but there is little doubt that Madame de Staël was the real author. On the 20th of April, 1813, Bernadotte left for Stralsund, the headquarters of the Army of the North, accompanied by Schlegel and Albert de Staël, whom he had taken for aide-de-camp. Madame de Staël left for England with Auguste de Staël and Rocca. She was received with enthusiasm, and her salon was soon filled with members of the highest society. Everybody wished to see the great enemy of Napoleon—the Prince-Regent, the Queen, the Duchess of York, the Duke of Gloucester, Lords Lansdowne, Grey, Liverpool, Erskine, Wellesley, Holland, Byron, Castlereagh. She could not accustom herself to English life; she wrote to Schlegel: "You must be of this country to prefer it to all others."

The time was near when the power of Napoleon was to come to its end. The allies had crossed the Rhine, and France was invaded. Let us do justice to Madame de Staël: she did not triumph with the triumphant allies. She writes eloquently to Benjamin Constant: "Don't you see the danger of France? . . . I am like Gustavus Vasa: I have attacked Christian, but they have placed my mother on the ramparts. Is it the moment to speak ill of the French when the flames of Moscow threaten Paris?" And she adds, "Let God banish me from France rather than that I should go back to it by the help of foreigners." She returned to Paris, however, in the spring of 1815, not with the help of the allies; but she found Paris occupied by Germans, Russians, and Cossacks. She was well received by Louis XVIII., though he did not much like her. She saw all the representative men of Europe, all her old friends. When the news of the landing of Napoleon arrived, she was thunderstruck, but she was not deceived as to the result of the Emperor's bold enterprise. She told Lavalette, who remarked that the distance was great from the Gulf of Jouan to the Tuileries, "He will arrive—he will arrive; he will be here in a few days. I have no illusions." She left at once for Coppet.

When she saw Benjamin Constant, La Fayette, Sismondi rally round Napoleon, who had convened the Chambers and offered constitutional guarantees to the nation, she became reassured. She declared herself satisfied with the Constitution. King Joseph presented her son Auguste to Napoleon, who received him with much kindness. After Waterloo she returned to Paris. A new life began for her. M. Gautier abandons her at that point, and gives in his concluding chapter a remarkable résumé of the long war between the all-powerful Emperor and the woman who was "the empress of thought." She was eminently the representative of those *idéologues* whom Napoleon detested, being himself essentially the man of action, as Emerson has called him in one of his famous essays. The glory of Madame de Staël was in her uncontrollable belief in an ideal of justice, of liberty. She was an enthusiast, and in the end her enthusiasm triumphed over the iron will of her adversary; for Napoleon was upset by moral as much as by material forces.

Correspondence.

"BLIZZARD."

To the Editor of The Nation:

Sir: In your issue of the 8th instant your correspondent, Mr. Matthews, calls for "examples of *blizzard* in any sense previous to 1880"; and I would refer him to the following extract from Dr. Craven's 'Prison Life of Jefferson Davis' (New York, 1866), given on page 13 of that book:

"He had ridden right in on top of the Sixth Connecticut regiment, and our boys had given him what we called 'a blizzard.'"

In my army days I have heard the same expression to denote a fearful volley of musketry, which was the sense in which my old comrade, Dr. Craven, used it.

Another instance of the use of the word—and much earlier—is found in the *Massachusetts Gazette*, November 7, 1765, where "the ship Blizard, Robert Davis, Commander," is mentioned, the name of the vessel being spelled with one "z." From the fact that it was applied to a ship, I infer that the word originated among sailors.

Samuel A. Green.

Massachusetts Historical Society,
Boston, April 21, 1903.

Notes.

The first volume of thirty-eight of Messrs. Scribners' "Library of Art" will be Charles Holroyd's 'Michael Angelo Buonarroti.' The same firm will publish 'Letters of a Diplomat's Wife,' by Mary King Waddington.

'Studies in Contemporary Biography' is

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the altered title of Mr. James Bryce's volume of biographical sketches just issued by Macmillan Co., who now announce for October 2 the appearance of Morley's Life of Gladstone.

Houghton, Mifflin & Co. have nearly ready 'The Solar System,' by Percival Lowell.

John Lane will shortly publish 'Walks in New England,' by Charles Goodrich Whiting, with numerous full-page photographic illustrations.

The Council of the Bibliophile Society of Boston have determined to pass from their nine-volume edition of Horace to a four-volume reissue of Dibdin's 'The Bibliomania' (1809-1843), with much retrenchment and free handling. Mr. William P. Cutter of the Library of Congress will contribute a bibliographical study of the most memorable prices brought at auction or private sale of notable books during the past two centuries.

Lemcke & Buechner invite orders for a Greek-German School Dictionary compiled by Prof. Dr. Herman Menge, and offering some features more extensive and thoroughgoing than school dictionaries commonly possess. The range of the vocabulary will cover several standard anthologies and Wilamowitz-Möllendorff's 'Lesebuch.' The eight parts will cost 75 pfennigs each.

The first general convention of the International Association of Scientific Academies held in Paris in April, 1901, assigned to three of its members, the Académie des Sciences and the Académie des Sciences Morales et Politiques of Paris and the Berlin Royal Academy of Sciences, the preliminary labor for a complete edition of the works of Leibniz. They have reached the conviction that the manuscripts and the rarer editions of the great philosopher are not yet sufficiently known, and have accordingly published an appeal addressed to libraries, archives, and specialists in general to furnish further material and data for this international edition. A list of questions has been prepared for all who are willing to act. A full report is to be made by the three societies to the next general convention of the Academies to be held in London in 1904.

"The Fireside Dickens," conjointly in course of publication by Chapman & Hall and Henry Frowde, has a homely aspect consistent with its title. The letterpress makes a "plain tale," with large type somewhat compacted, and there is an equally unpretentious green cloth cover with a hearth stamped upon it. The original illustrations by Cruikshank, "Phiz," and others, are reproduced once more. The attraction lies in the price of these handy volumes, which are very cheap indeed. There are to be twenty-two of them, and already we have 'Pickwick,' 'Sketches by Boz,' and 'Oliver Twist.' They can be purchased separately.

The Dent-Macmillan Thackeray proceeds with 'The Irish Sketch Book' and 'The Yellowplush Papers,' still under Mr. Walter Jerrold's auspices, with Mr. Brock's clever illustrations, more happy, on the whole, on Irish than on English ground.

Miss Margaret Warner Morley's 'Down North and Up Along' (Dodd, Mead & Co.) well deserved the second edition it has obtained at the end of three years. It is the story of the journey of two women from Digby, N. S., to the northern extremity of Cape Breton, related graphically and with delightful humor, with intelligent observation of nature, and with an optimism which sees beauty even in the Annapolis and Minas Basins at low tide. The Cape Breton itinerary was mostly off the beaten track, and stamps the book with originality; but no district visited is slighted, and at Grand Pré some history and some pretty historical reverie are indulged in. We could wish that between the two editions the author had repaired her omission to stop off at Annapolis, and to cross to the north shore of the Basin for a nearer view of that fine country, especially if in quest of apples; and again, that she might have crossed North Mountain from Grand Pré to glimpse the Bay of Fundy and the modest bayside bathing resorts. Her laborious drive through the wilds of Cape Breton might well, we should think, tempt the horseman to an easier excursion. We heartily commend the book as an unconventional guide to a region quite accessible, still primitive, extremely healthful, and abounding in fine scenery and grand historic associations.

Prof. James A. Harrison's 'Life and Letters of Edgar Allan Poe' in two volumes (Crowell) was thoroughly reviewed by us at the time of its appearance with the "Virginia Edition" last fall. Since the memoirs contain a greater collection of Poeana than had previously appeared in a single work, it was desirable that they should be issued separately, as they now are, with all the facsimiles and illustrations.

The gruesomeness of the tales collected in Ambrose Bierce's 'Can Such Things Be?' (Washington: The Neale Publishing Co.) is associated with undeniable power of relation and visualization. The dead are always present, and, as usual with this writer, the battlefield is a favorite scene. There are some terrible war pictures in this volume, not Mr. Bierce's best in literary execution, but in line with his other work. His manner is perfectly quiet. "Some Christian soul," he says of the body of a Federal sergeant, "had covered it with a blanket, but when the night became pretty sharp a companion of the writer removed this, and we lay beneath it ourselves." "One Kind of Officer" is a good illustration of "War is hell."

'The History of Oregón: The Growth of an American State,' by Horace S. Lyman (New York: North Pacific Publishing Society), is a pretentious work in four volumes, patently defective at every point. It is prolix, poor and ungrammatical in style, destitute of grasp and sense of proportion, with no chronological landmarks at the head of the page or in the table of contents. The meagre index is not analytical. The opening sentences are orphic: "This history of Oregon is in response to a demand, as public events of great significance are approaching." The editor has tried "to group subjects so as to recognize the grand order of time; and also the conclusions of Providence." He has also held himself in: "With the rise and development of the United States as a whole we cannot linger here," he says at the beginning of volume ii.; but by a less praiseworthy forbearance he compresses the romance and drama of Oregon's railroad connection with the East within seven pages. In his lucid phraseology, "no minute, or even a general sketch of the labors and struggles, involving men and political parties, and developing all the excitements and even the hostilities of actual warfare, can be entered into here. This is a theme for the character student and the sociologist." Jay Cooke is ignored in text and index; and the queer bibliography for volumes iii. and iv. contains no mention of any work relating to the building of the Northern Pacific Railway. This is history with a vengeance.

The second and concluding volume of the 'Correspondence of the Colonial Governors of Rhode Island, 1723-1775,' published by the National Society of the Colonial Dames of America in the State of Rhode Island and Providence Plantations, edited by Gertrude Selwyn Kimball, has appeared (Houghton, Mifflin & Co.). In every respect it confirms the favorable judgment we passed upon the first volume. Military affairs claim even a greater attention between 1746 and 1775, the period covered by the present volume, than between 1723 and 1746; nearly 150 of the letters and documents deal wholly or in part with the French wars. On the other hand, a greater variety of subjects are touched upon. After military matters, the questions most prominent are the navigation acts and the organization of the customs; the growing irritation between the colonies and England after 1765; the colonial currency; the development of colonial manufactures, and the organization of the Admiralty courts. Other matters, which are mentioned in one or more letters, are the scheme for requiring all Assemblymen to take an oath of allegiance to the King; postal service in the colonies; electioneering; colonial debt; petitions to Parliament; slave trade; Indians; colonial agency, etc. The volume contains five illustrations of remarkably good quality—three portraits, two houses. A single appendix is devoted to giving a chronological list of the correspondence of the Governors of Rhode Island from 1731 to 1775 printed in the Colonial Records. Between 450 and 500 letters are chronicled here with exact reference to the Records—a service which greatly increases the practical value of the work. The volume closes with a carefully prepared index of twenty-seven pages. Each subject will ordinarily have been entered at least three times, often four or five times, depending on the subject. Mechanical devices increase the usefulness of the index. The work of the editor in preparing the notes for this volume shows the same restraint, exactness, and good judgment exhibited in the first volume. On the whole, these two volumes must be considered as among the most valuable contributions to American colonial history that have appeared for some time.

Three books from the Friedenwald Company, Baltimore, on Hebrew subjects are evidently products of the Semitic Seminar at Johns Hopkins, and give laudable proof of the variety of Old Testament and Jewish studies there. Two appear to be dissertations. One, by Dr. William Rosenau, is on 'Hebraisms in the Authorized Version,' and is a very elaborate, often overstrained, but suggestive treatment of an important source of the English speech. Dr. Rosenau's weakness is, if anywhere, on the English side, which he is apt to take too mechanically. The second, by Dr. Adolf Guttmacher, on 'Optimism and Pessimism in

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the Old and New Testaments,' is a more ambitious attack on a deeper problem. The success, too, is certainly greater, and the book forms a really solid piece of work. There is independent thought in it, besides the exhaustive citation of references becoming in a dissertation. The third, also by Dr. Rosenau, consists of a series of lectures on 'Jewish Ceremonial Institutions and Customs,' delivered in 1901 before the Semitic Seminar of Johns Hopkins, and now cast into book form. The result is a most interesting little book, straightforward and terse, and very well illustrated.

The first part, just published, of Dr. Cheyne's 'Critica Biblica' (London: Adam & Charles Black; New York: Macmillan) is a series of textual, exegetical, and historical notes on Isaiah and Jeremiah. Prefixed is a prologue, which is practically a manifesto of "the new criticism." A great period in criticism has closed, and we are in the lull which had to follow. To open another forward movement was the aim of the 'Encyclopædia Biblica'; and to carry it further, of this new series of publications. Later there will appear a comprehensive historical work stating this new criticism in positive form. The present notes are intended to form a basis for that work, and to prepare the student who works through them for the new and very different standpoint and method. Thus, in time, doubtless, we shall learn whether Jerahmeel is the greatest mare's-nest ever discovered by a scholar of the first rank, or the most revolutionary and important step which Old Testament criticism has ever taken.

If there has been any doubt as to the negative position, at least, of Professor Delitzsch in his 'Babel und Bibel,' it must be completely removed by his "Zweiter Vortrag" (New York: Lemcke & Buechner). For him flatly there is no revelation, in spirit or letter, in the literature of the people of Israel, nor special divine working in their historical development. The Old Testament ceases to have any claim to a place in theological study; it is part of the history of religions. In a "Dritter Vortrag," Professor Delitzsch promises us, when the dust has cleared away, his positive views on religion.

The first part of Hann's 'Handbuch der Klimatologie' has been translated by R. De C. Ward, assistant professor of climatology in Harvard University, and is just issued by Macmillan under the title, 'Handbook of Climatology.' The volume is an excellent treatise on general climatology, with a few changes from the arrangement of the original work approved by the author, and with numerous additions of notes and references by the translator to bring it up to date from the time of the second German edition (1897). It makes a great advance on anything in English, and must at once take with us the high rank that the German original holds in Europe. It is in particular a marked improvement, so far as climate is concerned, over the books that have been prepared by physicians, with special relation to the medical aspects of the subject and with too little attention to its physical aspects. Part i. treats of climatic factors, temperature, moisture, wind, etc. Part ii., occupying nearly three-quarters of the book, gives a systematic discussion of the controls of climate, beginning with the action of sunshine, and then tracing out the various modifying influences of land and water, mountain and plain, forest and desert, and discussing in much detail the effects of various kinds of winds. The volume will serve excellently as a text-book or as a book of reference.

The Women's Auxiliary of the Civil Service Reform Association of Maryland has issued, as its first publication, under the comprehensive title 'School Conditions with and without the Competitive System,' two papers given recently before the National Association in Philadelphia by Prof. Lucy M. Salmon of Vassar and Dr. H. O. Reik of Baltimore, respectively. Dr. Reik makes a dramatic presentation of the change that has taken place in the public schools of Baltimore since the time when Mr. Rice characterized them in the *Forum* as among the very poorest in the country—a change brought about through the agency of the new charter, which became completely effective in the spring of 1900, together with the good choice of a School Board that was made by Mayor Hayes. The paper of Professor Salmon deals with the more general aspects of the question. This little pamphlet has already been widely circulated by the organization above named. It is an instance of very useful work that is being undertaken by women (in Boston, New York, and Baltimore) who find themselves unable to endure with patience the political ills from which both sexes suffer alike.

The *Journal of Geography* turned over a new leaf with its second volume, begun in January. It is henceforth to be published by Rand, McNally & Co., Chicago, and edited by Professor Richard E. Dodge of the Teachers' College, Columbia University, and Professor Edward M. Lehnerts of the State Normal School, Winona, Minn. Its chief intention is to promote the study of geography in elementary, secondary, and normal schools, through the teachers. The original articles in the first number are excellently adapted to that end, and skilfully illustrated. The selected matter also shows the expert hand.

In the *American Historical Review* for April (Macmillan) will be found the report of the meeting of the American Historical Association at Philadelphia last December. We have found of special interest in the remaining contents Professor Henry E. Bourne's paper on "American Constitutional Precedents in the French National Assembly." The American example was regarded, weighed, and discussed more or less intelligently; but there was nothing analogous in the French past to build upon, and the American bill of rights proved more attractive than any single provision in the American system.

A correspondent writes: "It is not so new as many people suppose—the treatment of consumption by means of fresh air and milk. The following passage is from the 'Letter to a Friend' of Sir Thomas Browne, which was first published in 1690. 'Some think there were few consumptions in the old world, when men lived much upon milk; and that the ancient inhabitants of this island were less troubled with coughs when they went naked and slept in caves and woods, than men now in chambers and feather beds.'"

The Roman papers announce that an Englishman, Mr. Lionel Phillips, has made the Italian Government another gift of one hundred thousand lire for the purchase of the remaining private houses that stand over the site of the Basilica Aemilia. It will thus be possible to complete the excavation of that structure, about half of which was uncovered in 1899 and 1900. Excavations are at present in progress in the House of the Vestals, where the earlier, underlying structures of imperial times are being investigated, from the Arch of Titus to the Porta Mucionis on the Palatine, and between the Temple of Augustus and the Church of S. Teodoro, where foundations in *opus quadratum* and concrete are being brought to light, which Huelsen thinks may belong to the Horrea Germaniciana.

—None better than Mr. Apthorp could have been chosen by the Oliver Ditson Company as editor of the collection of 'Fifty Songs by Robert Franz' which constitutes the latest volume in their "Musicians' Library." Not only is he an enthusiast, but he enjoyed the personal friendship of the man who had only one equal, Schubert, as a song writer; of whom Emanuel Garcia, the most eminent teacher of the Italian method in the last century, said that of all German songs his were the best suited to the voice; who was one of Liszt's idols, and who aroused the enthusiasm of even Wagner, who cared so little otherwise for the compositions of his contemporaries. Once before, in 1879, the Ditsons brought out a collection of Franz songs, in two volumes, which had his own sanction; but it was badly printed. The present edition is an improvement in every way, except in the omission of the footnotes briefly characterizing each of the songs; but, for this omission, Mr. Apthorp's luminous preface makes ample amends. It gives a brief sketch of Franz's life, and describes the peculiarities of his genius, as well as his relations to Wagner and other composers. A glimpse into his workshop is given in the form of a facsimile of an inedited song. Of the fifty songs selected by Mr. Apthorp, about forty are undoubtedly the gems of all the collections. Concerning the others, opinions may differ. It may have been wise to omit the quaint "Es ragt der alte Elborus" as being caviare to the general; but the editor will certainly have an extra week in purgatory for leaving out "Childe Harold," "Die schlanke Wasserlilie," "Ich hab' in deinem Auge," and, above all, the heavenly "Wonne der Wehmuth," which was evidently one of the favorites of Otto Dresel, Franz's most intimate friend, since the opening of one of his own best songs, "Lieb Liebchen," is an echo of it. However, it was impossible to squeeze all of the best Franz songs into one volume. The gems in this one are worth a thousand times their cost.

—When Matthew Arnold, in his lectures "On Translating Homer," objected to blank verse as the medium, because it lacked the rapidity of movement which is one of Homer's most obvious qualities, he was thinking of that slow and dignified rhythm which we have come to associate with the idea of blank verse, because such is its movement in the hands of masters like Milton and Tennyson. He admitted that a style of blank verse was conceivable which should move rapidly enough for the purpose; and he thought that it would be interesting to see such a style applied to Homer. If we had any reason to believe that Mr. T. H.

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Delabère May of Trinity College, Cambridge, the latest translator of Virgil's Æneid (London: Nutt), had ever read Arnold's lectures, we might fancy that he thought it would be interesting to see that style applied to the very last poet upon whom such an experiment should have been tried. The result is something which, rhythmically considered, is as much unsuited to most of Virgil as it might perhaps be suited to much of Homer. Bristling with monosyllables (there are more than a hundred in his first twelve lines to only eleven in the corresponding ten lines of Virgil), Mr. May's verse jerks the reader along through nine-syllables only to bring him up sharp with a constantly recurring monosyllabic close. He has a fond affection, too, for the letter *s:* not only do some verses positively hiss their swift way along, but on the third page we observe no less than five phrases in which a word ends and the next word begins with the sibilant. It is a pity that Mr. May did not realize the part which rhythm should play in the faithful rendering of a poet like Virgil for he certainly has, so far as the rendering of the mere words is concerned, shown that he understands their meaning, and he has brought this out with a clearness worthy the emulation of the great Mr. Bohn himself. Perhaps this was his main object; for in his preface he remarks that he has "thought that a blank verse rendering of the Æneid might be written which should be as helpful to the student as an ordinary prose crib, *and more easily remembered*" (we have ventured, also in the interests of students, to italicize these words). But when he proceeds to suggest that his translation is faithful in spirit to the original, he entirely overlooks another of Arnold's dicta, that it is not fidelity to an original to give its matter unless you at the same time give its manner. Nothing could be further from the manner of Virgil than what Mr. May has presumed to call his "literal rendering" of the Æneid. Nobody who has not read the Latin could ever get an idea of the greatness of the original from Mr. May's book; and nobody who is able to read the Latin need trouble himself to look into it.

—The Germans undoubtedly excel in such handbooks as the "Künstler Monographien" or the "Monographien des Kunstgewerbes" (Leipzig: Seeman), of which No. 9, Cornelius von Fabriczy's 'Medaillen der Italienischen Renaissance,' lies before us. The large size of the page permits of a sufficient number of illustrations, in the present instance 181, to represent the whole matter graphically. There is this inevitable drawback to the study of Renaissance medals, that, after the founder of the art, all else is decadence. No one of his successors attained the absolute simplicity of plane and line that make Pisanello's portraits equal if not superior to the best Greek coins, nor again the grand manner of the allegorical designs which adorn the obverse of his pieces. This said, the beginner will find Herr Fabriczy's treatise an agreeable guide for the one hundred and fifty years from Pisanello's first medals to the death of Pastorino in 1592, while the numismatist will note that, with scrupulous acknowledgment of earlier investigations, he pursues throughout an independent course. After preliminary discussion of the method of producing medals, cast and stamped, he treats successively Pisanello and his school, the other medal makers of northern Italy, those of Florence, and of Rome. A second and much shorter section treats of sixteenth-century medals struck from a die, under the captions, The Medici, The Popes, and The Paduan and Milanese Designers. Throughout, the treatment is sober, and the reproductions generally speak eloquently for the score or so of new attributions hazarded by the author, who, for example, adds a medal or so to the lists of L'Antico, Cavalli, and Alessandro Vittoria, the virile portraitist of the pamphleteer Aretino; and distinguishes between the rather feeble medals of Francia and those of a pupil.

—More important are Fabriczy's comments on the Florentine medallists, who, with a technique inferior to that of the north, had a great advantage in their subjects—the Medici Academy notably—and a gravity all their own. To run over the list of Nicolò Fiorentino, for instance, is to renew acquaintance with Lorenzo, Giuliano, Poliziano, Pico della Mirandola, with Lorenzo Tornabuoni and his wife, Giovanna degli Albizzi, to celebrate whose nuptials Botticelli painted the frescoes of the Villa Lemmi now in exile in the Louvre. Fabriczy actually adds a new medallist, Adriano Fiorentino, to the Tuscan roll. This artist, a scholar of Bertoldo, is known only from a medal of Elizabeth, Duchess of Urbino, and by a portrait of Degenhart Pfeffinger, Marshal of Lower Bavaria, with his arms in a wholly German feeling on the obverse. Very interesting, too, is the assertion that the unique Ercole II. of Este in the Weimar cabinet is a trial proof of Benvenuto Cellini's. But the expert reader will gather from these instances that the connoisseur as well as the amateur must consult Herr Fabriczy's monograph. At only one point would we take sharp issue with his opinion. The superb plaquette of Leon Battista Alberti in the Louvre is too unlike the work of Pisanello to be safely attributed to the greatest of the medallists. It shows a solicitude for detail—note only the hair, the ear, and the drapery—which is wholly alien to Pisanello's inflexibly austere style. To the present writer it seems distinctly Florentine. The hypothesis that it is Alberti's own, allures, but it is better to leave it anonymous, thanking Heaven for a time that provides anonymous works of this quality.

—The actual situation in China, as concerns education and reform, is shown in the fifteenth annual report of the "Diffusion Society," of which Sir Robert Hart is President, and funds for which are supplied mostly in China by merchants and some liberal-minded Chinese. The modern Government colleges now number thirteen, eleven being provincial and two prefectural; a half million of taels being set aside for modern education in a region containing three-fourths of the population of China. Over these, so far, three Americans preside. About 700 Chinese young men and a score or so of young women are studying in Japan, while probably as many as 200 Japanese are in the employ of the Chinese Government as teachers, engineers, advisers, etc. Four pages of specimen questions, now used at the triennial examinations, which 150,000 students attend, on modern and Western subjects are given, *e. g.*, "What are the Western sources of economical prosperity, and, as China is so poor, what would be the best for China?" The appendix shows that the Reform movement of 1898 owed its initiation and development largely to the literature published by this Society for the Diffusion of Christian and General Knowledge among the Chinese, which proceeds upon the belief that the distinction so commonly drawn between the "secular" and the "sacred" is a vicious one. Its object is to supply high-class literature to intelligent Chinese. Of the long list of publications issued or in preparation, the majority are standard works on biography, geography, history, literature, nature study, handy cyclopædias, etc. Among the new books in press are Paul Bert's 'First Year of Science,' 'Comparative Anatomy,' Pouchet's 'Universe,' 'Story of Eclipses,' 'Fifty Years of Science,' 'Life of Queen Victoria,' 'Relative Strength of Nations,' 'Principles of Western Civilization,' etc. Dr. Y. J. Allen, editor of the *Review of the Times* (48,500 copies and 2,910,000 pages in 1902), is issuing in twenty-one parts, fully illustrated, a comparative 'Study of Civilization,' in all ages and lands, as self-determined by the treatment of women, 'History of the Czars of Russia,' and Lawrence's 'International Law.' In 1902 there was an unprecedented demand for the Society's publications, which are furnished at half-price to those who start circulating libraries. In place of the Boxer suggestions of extermination, or conservative remedies fitted for ancient times or conditions, or racial opposition and brutal materialism, this society offers as the solvent of China's difficulties education and enlightenment. Such need is seen in the fact that until very lately no Mantchu prince was allowed to spend a night outside Peking. Dr. Timothy Richard of Shanghai, the Secretary, has recently by Imperial invitation spent four months in Shansi, organizing the Government college there. This institution has, besides seven foreign and six Chinese professors, the largest staff of translators of any Government college in China, who are busy at Shanghai in preparing text-books on Western principles, an example now being followed in Chi-li by the viceroy, Yuen, the successor of Li Hung Chang.

DIABOLUS EX MACHINA.

Democracy and the Organization of Political Parties. By M. Ostrogorski. Translated from the French by Frederick Clarke, M. A., formerly Taylorian Scholar in the University of Oxford. With a Preface by the Right Hon. James Bryce, M. P. In two volumes, 8vo, pp. lvii, 627, xliii, 758. The Macmillan Co. 1902.

This is a very notable contribution to our knowledge of the contemporary politics of English-speaking peoples. It entitles its author to the rank of master craftsman in that guild of political thinkers which boasts Bagehot, Bryce, and Tocqueville among its brethren. It is essentially a painstaking and minute study of machine politics in all its phases. Upon this extra-constitutional aspect of modern democracy Ostrogorski has concentrated his penetrating scrutiny. He is interested in the *vis viva* of politics, not in the stereotyped apparatus erected by public law for the safe

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conduction of fluid political energy. Back of the dummy styled by courtesy the legislator, he sees the wirepuller and the boss; and, "unduped of fancy" and unblinded by the great political superstitions of our age, he is stubbornly intent upon discovering the vital heart of things political. In this dissection of the body politic he plies a patient but relentless scalpel; and if the morbid anatomy of politics hides at times any secret from him, it is seemingly this—that civic tissue is not universally gangrenous. Despite the fact that, in his presentation of his theme, the miniaturist's fidelity to details is everywhere in evidence, he does not allow his reader to lose the forest in the trees. He loves occasionally to leave the political laboratory for an adventurous flight in the "cold, thin atmosphere" of dialectics, and the sweep of his final generalizations betrays an affinity for the 'Politics' of Aristotle.

Mr. Ostrogorski comes well equipped to his task. The position which he held in the Russian bureaucracy required of him a wide acquaintance with the science of comparative legislation. One may also fairly surmise that his personal experience of an autocratic régime—of its excellences no less than its defects—induced in him an intellectual detachment vastly serviceable in the scientific study of a diametrically different political system. To the survey of a new land he brought a fresh eye, not jaded by the glare of so-called popular government. He brought also to his task judicial impartiality and candor, and the rare patience of fifteen years of study and reflection. Most unique of all his qualifications is that he combines a profound knowledge of political philosophy with a personal knowledge of living politicians. He not only has studied in the library, but has kept his eyes open in the ward meeting. He knows Plato's 'Republic,' and he knows the Platt machine, and he knows them both thoroughly.

The first of the two volumes is devoted to party organization in England, its rise, its spread, and its results. The political machine in England is fairly recent, dating from 1867, and is a Brummagem ware. Prior to the Reform Bill of 1832, organized and permanent political parties were to be found only within Parliament. Particular issues, it is true, like Catholic Emancipation, had, previous to this time, recruited their adherents throughout the kingdom, and had induced concerted action in the way of political agitation. But such movements were sporadic. With the attainment of their object or the cooling of their fervor, they collapsed. It is also true that, long before 1867, on the eve of a Parliamentary election, the Whigs and Tories hastily devised throughout the provinces local agencies to attend to the business of registration and to bring out the party vote. The Eatanswill election in the 'Pickwick Papers' is not improbably a veracious picture of this early form of party activity. But when a new Parliament had once been chosen, virtue went out of the local political agency, and it lay dormant until another Parliament was to be elected.

The beginnings of the permanent political machine in England verify what we may take to-day as a political axiom—that the more legislative safeguards against political injustice abound, the more will partisan deviltry superabound. The act of 1867 had been devised to secure minority representation in certain constituencies like Birmingham, which returned three members to Parliament. The Birmingham Radicals, casting about to circumvent the law so as to secure a solid Liberal delegation, hit upon the machinery of the caucus or primary meeting. A convention of delegates elected in the wards made regular Liberal nominations. The Central Liberal Committee in the town, by means of a careful canvass of their voting strength in each ward, effected such a nicely calculated delivery of their adherents' ballots as to elect a solid Liberal delegation. The machine had worked. But, like many another invention, its profits were destined to enrich, not the inventor—an architect by the name of Harris—but the man who first gauged its possibilities. It is hardly necessary to say that this was none other than Joseph Chamberlain. Along with Aaron Burr, he shares the fame of having first fastened upon his country the régime of machine politics.

But men do not light a candle and put it under a bushel. Neither do they devise a successful machine and confine it to Birmingham. The Liberals in other places were induced to build similar machines. Then a national federation of the Liberal associations was effected, and its permanent headquarters were established, first at Birmingham, and finally at London. By 1886 the Tories had devised their chain of machines under the style of the Primrose League. Essentially this was and is a political machine, although its founders were shrewd enough—or simple enough, for it is not quite clear which—to give it a veneer of sham mediævalism.

Ostrogorski contends that the true government in England to-day is essentially an oligarchy, anonymous and irresponsible, consisting of the leaders of the machine which happens to have a majority in Parliament. The leaders of the machine have been able to usurp power by their hypocritical obeisance to the dogma of democracy. They hide their usurpation by the pretence that they are but registering the voice of the caucus, as that in turn echoes the *vox populi*. The fact is, "that the ward meetings are deserted, as the agents of the caucus themselves admit frankly enough" (I., 332); and "it is in these, which contain 2 to 3 per cent. of the whole electorate, that the delegates are chosen who are to invest the caucus with its representative authority" (I., 333). In practice, therefore, a few active politicians manipulate the meagrely attended ward meetings, and secure therefrom an ostensibly popular ratification of nominations which the leading politicians have themselves previously concocted. This hierarchy of wirepullers thereupon dons what it gives out to be the livery of public opinion, and in this disguise serves the devil—that is, themselves.

Sadly amusing is the description of the manner in which the organization proceeds to wake up the electorate to vote for the candidate who is supposedly invested, by virtue of his regular nomination, with the democratic pallium of "popularity." The proportion of voters that would go to the polls spontaneously is variously estimated at from 35 to 50 per cent. To the lost sheep of the house of Indifference the canvasser is sent with blare of trumpet and clang of tom-tom. The political platform also is perverted from serving as a school of reason to the base function of educing a flow of feeling sufficient to bring out the party's voting strength at the polls.

With its creatures once ensconced in office, the caucus, for so Ostrogorski designates the permanent organization, practically nullifies true democratic government. It exercises an obtrusive intervention between the Parliamentary leader of the majority of the House of Commons and the members of his party, between the member and his constituency, and between Parliament and outside opinion. The Premier is responsible primarily to the caucus. Let him conform to its behests, and the "Parliamentary party leader is converted into a party dictator" (I., 215). Let the individual member kick over the traces of the caucus, and the local organization in his constituency is straightway charged by the central caucus to regard him "as an heathen man and a publican." Let the mutterings of public interest become audible with reference to a new issue, an issue unwelcome to the caucus, as jeopardizing party solidarity, and the caucus straightway struggles to garrote its professed master, Public Opinion.

This sweeping indictment of the political machine in England Mr. Bryce, in his preface, seeks to evade by confession of all the concrete facts alleged, and yet by avoidance of the verdict pronounced. He urges that the author has taken certain phenomena as unduly typical, and has underestimated certain factors which greatly relieve the sombreness of the picture. It would savor of the ridiculous in one not intimately acquainted with English politics at first hand to attempt to decide when such learned doctors disagree. But, by comparison with machine politics in America, it would seem that England might find cause for a large degree of residual satisfaction when the arch-critic of her politicians admits that "the motive powers which set them going" are "the feeling of duty and that of self-love" (I., 353), and that "when all is said and done, the members of the English caucus who reap material benefit from it in one form or another are only a minority" (I., 358).

The second volume is devoted principally to a study of the machine in the United States. It combines the history of the machine's evolution and the philosophical rationale of its inevitableness under the contemporary social conditions. Both of these fields had been previously explored. The first was the common property of a score of investigators, while Bryce in his 'American Commonwealth,' and more particularly Henry Jones Ford in his 'Rise and Growth of American Politics,' had staked out the main landmarks in the latter province. Still, Ostrogorski's delineation of both subjects has an independent value of its own. It affords a far greater wealth of detail. It assesses pertinent social and economic considerations more accurately. It throws a flood of light over certain collateral topics, such as the comparative influence of women upon politics in England and America. The portraiture of the machine's Rake's Progress is drawn with an unerring pencil from the point where "the managers of the Organization, disguised as members of Congress, forced the Executive to make over the whole Federal patronage to them" (II., 133), to the culminating in-

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famy where the Boss arises as a political dictator and a broker in legislation and administration.

On the other hand, Ostrogorski evaluates most discriminatingly the intrinsic efficiency of the machine as a government—a government without honesty of purpose or legitimacy of origin, to be sure, but one whose leaders "are recruited by natural selection," whose adherents are bound together "by mutual attachment and feudal loyalty to the chief," and in which "individual responsibility and personal merit are the only principles that govern their relations" (II., 439).

In the hundred pages entitled "The Struggles for Emancipation" which portray the various reform movements in the United States, he appraises very sagaciously both the gains and the losses attributable to civil-service reform, the Australian ballot, and other projects which externally look towards political betterment. It is a matter for regret that he did not think it worth while to devote a chapter to a formal comparison of party organizations in England and in the United States. The reason for this omission was probably his conviction that the machine in this country is what the caucus in England is bound eventually to become. But this is far from certain; nay, it does not seem even probable. This is the strong point that Bryce in the preface makes against Ostrogorski, that the democracies of the self-governing British colonies, and particularly in Australia, have not developed upon the lines of the American machine.

The materials for such a comparison of the English and American party organizations this work affords in abundance. The two organizations are alike usurpers, veiling their usurpation by their ostensible deference to popular sovereignty, and maintaining their power through the apathy of the electorate. They are alike incapable of representing living public opinion. Even with its ear to the ground, the machine is often so blinded by its fear of disintegration that it frequently persists in a policy under which it is buried in a political landslide. But, despite these likenesses, between the two organizations there is a great gulf fixed, and that gulf is money. Not that the use of money as a corruption fund is unknown in England, for the author shows how the Corrupt Practices Act of 1883 is largely nullified through the agency of the caucus; but the English politician is working generally for the power and dignity that attach to a seat in Parliament, whereas the typical member of the American machine, though doubtless moved by a number of motives, is chiefly "working for his own pocket all the time." This sharp distinction between the party organizations of the two countries holds true for local as well as for national politics. In spite of the fact that national party lines are drawn to an increasing extent in British municipal elections, Ostrogorski, who is nothing if not Draconian in the judgments he passes, allows (I., 488) that "municipal interests are not sacrificed to those of the political parties or of the politicians." This by itself differentiates the two systems *toto cœlo*.

There are occasional minor slips in the second volume. A carelessly framed statement (II., 181) seems to imply that almost all railroads in the United States were built by Federal subsidies. The statement relative to municipal public debts ignores the relative slackening in their growth since 1880, and it is certainly incorrect to say that the colossal sums expended left "the cities with no thoroughly developed or well executed public works" (II., 177). The statement as to the place of United States history in our schools is largely erroneous; in particular the allegation that in the common schools it is "brought to a close with Washington's Presidency" (II., 324). Aaron Burr is spoken of as "poorly connected" (II., 42); and a name is occasionally misspelled. But in the main the picture is accurate. And, dark as it unquestionably is, its sombreness is relieved both by its ungrudging admission of the "sovereign protection" accorded by our courts to the fundamental rights of the man and the citizen, and by its generous recognition of awakening public spirit.

The closing part of the work (II., pp. 607-741) is an attempt to construct a theoretical system of government capable of realizing the goal of democracy. This is an elaborate, often a profound, but after all a futile, exercise of political ingenuity. Ostrogorski does not make the mistake, so common among fledgling reformers, of thinking that we may be saved by machinery. No one insists more emphatically than he that political salvation rests fundamentally on individual and national integrity, and that without unselfish public spirit the best calculated schemes of reform are bound to shipwreck. But he is persuaded that the knell of party has rung, and he is concerned to point out the substitute that must be introduced if true democracy is not to perish from the earth. This substitute he finds in political leagues seeking each of them to realize only a single object, and naturally dissolving when that object is attained or its quest is abandoned. This scheme of "temporary single-issue organizations" would, he thinks, involve as its corollary under régimes of the English type the abolition of the collective responsibility of the Cabinet, for which the responsibility of the individual minister would be substituted. It makes the reader sit up and rub his eyes when he is told that the exploitation of power by political parties in the United States is to be abolished by making over the election of the President to Congress; but we are reassured when we learn that the Congress which is to exercise this function is one "no longer organized on the basis of party majorities." Of such an ideal scheme we can only say, "It is high, we cannot attain unto it." For, if the political experimentation of free countries has proved anything, it seems to be this, that those political devices which prove of most benefit in the long run are those which minimize the strain upon the political activity of the body politic. Such, for example, are our judiciary system, particularly our Federal judiciary, and in England the infrequency of elections and the small number of elective offices. Ostrogorski's scheme would vastly increase the political strain upon the individual citizen, and is calculated to work successfully only

"Hereafter, in a better world than this."

RECENT NOVELS.

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Walda. By Mary Holland Kinkaid. Harper & Brothers.

A Lad of the O'Friels. By Seumas MacManus. McClure, Phillips & Co.

Mr. Carryl, on his title-page, calls his book a novel, and we are bound to believe him. Otherwise we might have thought that he was preparing speeches for the School Reader of the future, always supposing that in the future there will be schools and Readers. For the hero declaims upon his love for his State, the heroine declaims upon optimism, upon the creed of an American and upon the redemption of rejected lovers, while between clauses she is calling the accepted one "boy dear" and "Johnny boy." The characters all declaim, indeed, so that particularization is not needed. Their orations run in part upon patriotism, State-allegiance, temperance, political corruption, and strikes. There is not a wrong sentiment in the book except where Natalie momentarily defends the act of shooting a corrupt office-holder, and even this mistake is made productive of good, since it helps the Lieutenant-Governor to see clearly the opposite side of the question; which only goes to show that incessant oratory cannot fail to be useful. If it does not instruct, it warns. Whether it adds to the reality of a story is another matter. The truth is, that while the book may justly claim as its own some mildly amusing characters, some rather clever sayings, and not a few strong pleas for love of country and State, as a whole it is formless and raw.

'The Spoilsmen' is a good example of a style of story which is fast multiplying, and threatens to swamp American libraries. The motto of the type is "Art for the Inartistic's Sake"; and it seems indispensable that the nature portrayed should be the nature of something sordid, unlovely, mortifying, clattering with modern machinery, phrased in ultra-modern slang. When, as in Mr. Flower's book, the object drawn from its dread abode into the cheerful day is the ward politics of a large city—Chicago in this case—there is no fault to be found with the moral trend of the display. There is even edification for voters, for would-be office-holders and others in the exposition of Bossism and corruption which Mr. Flower makes in glaring colors and with Röntgen-ray detail; and that he makes it through the experiences of two honest men trying faithfully and in vain to serve their respective wards, an aristocratic and a plebeian, only brings home the more forcibly the lesson of political difficulty and despair. It would not be reasonable to expect ward politicians to express themselves in the language of Ruskin, or to ask authors to eliminate automobiles from their stories of modern cities; but it may be permitted the fiction-loving reader to regret that his novels nowadays too often progress from song to sermon, from sermon to saloon primaries. They ought to be rechristened and called wholesome lessons disguised as bitters. As pamphlets in

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a "Good Citizenship Series," they would be no less readable, perhaps no less read, than in dramatic form, necessitating prosaic properties and a language which makes one cry, "How long?" Hear what the fight-for-the-right pugilist says, for instance:

"He can put up a nasty straight-out fight, but he's shy of speed in his head-piece. You're all right with your quick-action think-tank, but you're out of it now."

Thus far as to the æsthetic pleasure to be gained from this book and its fellows. It is cheerfully added that Mr. Flower has done his task well. He has inquired within at the doors of esoteric ward work to great purpose, and holds up to the gaze of thoughtful citizens a picture of bribery and cunning that is full of caution to sinners and victims.

It ought not to be surprising that Miss Wilkins, the apostle of naturalism, should make an excursion into supernaturalism, and assuredly it ought not to be surprising that she should look for her new material close to where she found the old. To gaunt, hollow-eyed New England housewives and mind-starved spinsters, ghosts should easily appear, born of isolation and monotony. But here comes the strange thing: it is not out of her half-crazed, lonely folk that she has made her spirit-seers. She has gone into the comparatively worldly stratum of New England country society, to the women who wear ruffled black-silk dresses, to those who board the schoolma'am, to those who are left in comfortable circumstances and move into town. It is not favorable soil for ghost-seers, and the ghosts show it, they are so gratuitously ghostly; they go out of their way to be ghosts. Obeying no law of shadowland, they work jugglers' tricks rather than supernaturalism. They plague rather than haunt. They annoy the nerves rather than curdle the blood. What they do, seems the result of their author's ingenuity rather than of their own need to be recognized. True, a ghost need not wear samite. Cordial welcome awaits the gingham ghosts of Yankee-land. But they must be really ghosts, not sleight-of-hand performers. Of all the present group, the one that gives the reader the nearest approach to a chill is the little child-spirit of the concluding story. Mr. Newell's illustrations are in keeping. His phantoms are dyspeptic, more than mysterious; his phantom-gazers express no more than a reasonable, black-alpaca consternation.

'Handicapped among the Free' is a story of the "Black Belt" of Alabama, and a moving document in the great case. Passionately on the side of the negro, the writer makes her plea the more potent by permitting herself to delineate here and there a just white and an unjust black. While with a hot pen she describes the horrors pursuing the black race in the South, she can yet put a cool finger on the pivot of part of the agitation in saying:

"No race can ever rise so long as the best men and women in its own ranks look upon it with scorn." "When uplifting is, to the better among any people, synonymous with shaking off from their feet the dust of their own race, and preferring admission amongst men of another nationality to that leadership in their own to which their higher position should point, then there is little hope for the race to which they belong." "Unconsciously, Free [the negro hero] had fallen into the selfishness—very natural, perhaps, but very much to be deplored—of most of the rising men of his own race. He had thought of achievement as making his way among white men. He had taken his public to be a white public, and all around him were black men looking up to him, and he did not see them—except as so many darkies. He chafed at the scorn of the white man, and he passed on that scorn to the lower ranks of his own people, and did not even know he was doing it."

The problem is well stated by the old negress, who says: "De nigger he got to race wid de white man, and de white man . . . hab de long legs and de go-aheadness all inside him. De nigger hab de behindness and de hab-nothingness." And old Betsey touches the kernel of the matter when she says of her husband's persecution and business ruin, because he had aspired to the magistracy, "And now West's laid low and most everything's swept away, the white feelin' 'll maybe stop workin'."

The workin' of the white feelin' leads to the tragedies which, though heaped high, are commented on in a temper of wonderful moderation. As a story, the book is too long, and too much given to preachments, black and white. But if its style is wordy, its incidents are like hammers. It rises superior to small criticisms, an appalling human brief, yet not without a hope—that hope, the negro schools of the South and their effect upon the negro's attitude toward his own people.

Mr. Harben is a master at reproducing the atmosphere of Georgia, and he has a fund of good Georgia stories. His main story is good, too, but would have been better had it stood more by itself. His hero is a young man who has been substituted as expiatory heir to the affections of an older man who, years before, had killed his own friend in a drunken passion. The substitute has in divers ways a checkered career, the history of which would be of more dignified interest than it is if it were not interwoven with an overplus of mere local anecdote. The book is a not perfectly happy fusion of a good story and a sheaf of comic-paper clippings. For the story part of the combination, it may be said that it shows Mr. Harben's unquestioned skill at portraits of all Southern sorts—the mountaineer, the storekeeper, the patrician, the sons and daughters of the soil.

'Walda' is a story of America, too, but of an engrafted and not native America. It concerns itself with a religious community of German settlers in the West, where property is held in common and love and marriage are discouraged. Walda is the maiden who, from her noble character and spiritual tendencies, is about to undergo consecration as prophetess of the community when the story opens. The chance visit of an outsider changes the current of affairs in Zanah, and many community affairs run rough when confronted by the facts of human feeling. The "almost photographic fidelity" claimed for this picture of an actually existing community gives the book an interest which might flag were it approached as a mere story.

'A Lad of the O'Friels' recalls the little Provençal boy whom Félix Gras has celebrated in his matchless story, 'The Reds of the Midi.' Like him, Dinny O'Friel spent his time curled up in the corner of the shoemaker's shop which was the neighborhood club in Knockagar, hearing and learning many things. From the boy's standpoint, we have a chronicle of an Irish village. His neighbors are admirably drawn types of deviltry or sensibility; he himself is happily compounded of both, equally at home in the shoemaker's corner, rambling over the hills, lighting the fires on Bonfire night, buying ribbons at the harvest fair, or going on a pious pilgrimage to the Holy Island. Notwithstanding a few broken heads and a certain amount of billingsgate, the prevailing air is one of Irish kindliness and neighborliness lending cheer and charm to the story. The realness of the Irish dialect falls persuasively on the ear grown used to colonial adaptations. The humor is thoroughly Irish, but not all local; the good-bye note of the "Vagabone" departing for America is a thing of worth to all literature. Indeed, we think that those who are indifferent or hostile to Irish stories in general, considering them oppressive by reason of plots and potheen, may yet find in this humor-shot idyl an hour of relenting, if not of refreshment.

DOCUMENTARY HISTORY OF THE PHILIPPINES.

The Philippine Islands, 1493-1803: Explorations by early navigators, descriptions of the islands and their peoples, their history, and records of Catholic missions, as related in contemporaneous books and manuscripts, etc. Translated from the originals. Edited and annotated by Emma Helen Blair and James Alexander Robertson, with historical introduction and additional notes by Edward Gaylord Bourne. With maps, portraits, etc. Volume I., 1493-1529. Volume II., 1521-1569. Cleveland, O.: The Arthur H. Clark Company.

This is in almost all ways the most extensive and most important project ever undertaken in the line of Philippine history in any language, above all the English. To quote from the scholarly introduction of Professor Bourne:

"The American people are confronted with two race problems, one within their own confines and long familiar, but still baffling solution; the other new, remote, unknown, and even more imperatively demanding intelligent and unremitting effort for its mastery. . . . To govern them [the Filipinos] or to train them to govern themselves are tasks almost equally perplexing, nor is the problem made easier or clearer by the clash of the contradictory estimates of their culture and capacity which form the ammunition for party warfare. . . . In the Philippine question, however, although the sources are no less abundant and instructive [than in the case of the negro problem], they are and have been highly inaccessible, owing, on the one hand, to the absolute rarity of the publications containing them, and, on the other, to their being in a language hitherto comparatively little studied in the United States. To collect these sources, scattered and inaccessible as they are, to reproduce them and interpret them in the English language, and to make it possible for university and public libraries and the leaders in thought and policy to have at hand the complete and authentic records of the culture and life of the millions in the Far East whom we must understand in order to do them justice, is an enterprise large in its possibilities for the public good."

In the prospectus for the contemplated fifty-five volumes of the series, we note a preponderance of ecclesiastical decrees, friar chronicles, etc. Not knowing how fully the editors have yet developed their material for the later volumes, it is perhaps unfair to remark that nearly six

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pages of documents are listed for the period 1493-1650, roughly the discovery period and "missionary age," and but two pages to the more strictly administrative period, 1650-1803. Of the many documents covering 1570-1610, the really more significant are five, De Loarca's "Relation," De Plasencia's 'Tagalog Customs,' the 1599 'Ordinances of Good Government,' the Jesuit Chirino's Relation, and the work of De Morga, the justice. One might suggest omitting, if necessary, some of the documents for 1570-1650, especially regarding commerce, in favor of data coming closer to the life of the Filipino people in that period, such as the local revolts of the early years, the five-day earthquakes of 1644, and the miracle tales surrounding them. As against the attention paid to commercial regulations and the unsuccessful missions to the Palaos Islands in the early eighteenth century, there is little relating to plans for education, then assuming new shape, and no mention of Governor-General Bustamante, charged with plans for secular education and slain in the Palace in a revolt organized and led there by Jesuits and friars. The royal decree of 1751, ordering a restoration of the old boundaries of the friar estates in central Luzon, "extended by fraud" (to quote it), is not mentioned; it followed the pacification of the Tagalogs after risings (in 1743-4) which were in every way the prototypes of the revolts of 1872 and 1896. We will say no more to show that there must be, in some particulars, a broadening of scope if this work is to give us "the complete and authentic records of the culture and life of the millions in the Far East whom we must understand in order to do them justice."

The series, it is noted, will end with 1803, a date chosen because Zúñiga's story of his travels appropriately closes the eighteenth century. It was aimed to include only documents not otherwise easily accessible; perhaps, also, there was a little shrinking from entering into the controversies of the nineteenth century in the islands.

Professor Bourne's introduction occupies seventy pages; within those limits he has given us the best considered essay on Philippine history ever published in English. One is especially impressed with his plea for fairness toward the record of Spanish colonialism. We might urge that the climatic conditions in Spanish colonies precluded that ruthless extinction of the native stock which followed Anglo-Saxon colonization in the temperate zones; but results speak for themselves, and the fact is that Catholic Spain, missionary and fanatic, has left a more benevolent colonizing record than Protestant England. His extensive reading in Philippine history has led Professor Bourne to side with the traditional view of the islanders at the time of the conquest, as a set of savages, whose descendants owe almost everything to their monastic preceptors. In this he has been unduly influenced by such writers as Retana, a consummate friar-eulogist (some charge, a hireling); and he apparently gives face value to the description of the islanders by Pigafetta, an Italian adventurer who accompanied Magellan. Some will challenge the statement that the Spanish conquerors "preserved the essential features" of the Filipinos' social organization, and that they "introduced" village life. With his estimate of the accomplishments of the Orders in the heroic period of missionary labors, the "Golden Age," as he calls it, it is hardly possible to disagree. He charges the decline from thenceforward on the retrogressive economic policy of the Spanish Government, on its system of trade monopolies, its inept Governors, and corrupt provincial administrators. It is following the pro-friar authorities a little too closely to say that "a corrupt civil service and a futile and decrepit commercial system were, through the friars' efforts, rendered relatively harmless, because circumscribed in their effects." The Orders really ruled at Madrid and Manila, developed the general policies, and jealously guarded prerogatives over details; it is only fair to hold them responsible for the general results, to say nothing of the cases where they deliberately balked civilian measures of progress.

Volume I. contains, besides the historical introduction, 140 pages of documents (papal bulls, treaties, etc.) relating to the "Line of Demarcation" between Spain and Portugal, Pope Alexander's famous "division of the world" in 1493. About 100 pages are devoted to documents concerning Magellan's memorable voyage, closing with the interesting letter of Maximilianus Transylvanius, 'De Moluccis Insulis,' 1522, reciting the details brought regarding Magellan's death and the "spice islands" by the handful of sailors who returned in the only one of the five vessels which circumnavigated the globe. Bibliographic data are appended, and chronological tables of the Popes and the rulers of Spain, 1493-1803. Volume I. is illustrated by a portrait of Magellan, a photographic facsimile of a manuscript bearing his signature, and a facsimile of the title-page of 'De Moluccis Insulis.' There is also appended an excellent map of the Philippine Archipelago. Volume II. is made up of contemporaneous documents concerning the expeditions of García de Loaisa (1525-6), of Ruy Lopez de Villalobos (1541-3), and Miguel Lopez de Legazpi (1564-68), and the voyage of Alvaro de Saavedra (1527-8). Authentic portraits of Legazpi and of Fray Andrés de Urdaneta, with more autographic facsimiles and a picture of the Santo Niño of Cebú, constitute the illustrations.

The work is printed on deckle-edged paper, uncut, gilt top, and is neatly bound.

Life and Correspondence of Henry Ingersoll Bowditch. By his Son, Vincent Y. Bowditch. In two volumes. Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 1902.

Few biographies are more helpful than such as present the lives of men who, in private station, exhibit lofty public spirit; who, abiding in their calling, crown it with dignity and honor, and in their personal and domestic life are everything that is noble and attractive. The recent biography of John M. Forbes was one of the most notable of these, so that nothing could be more fit than that the biography of his friend, Dr. Bowditch, should come next in order. It would have ample justification (though it might have been condensed into one volume without injury) if it were only a picture of the large-natured man, the good physician, the genial friend, the enthusiastic reformer, the devoted son, brother, husband, and father, and the deeply religious soul; but Dr. Bowditch liked to write of those events of which he saw much and was an active part, and what he has written of certain phases of the anti-slavery conflict will take a place among the most entertaining and instructive recollections of that conflict, both for the future delight of the reader interested in such things and for the supplying of warmth and color to the historian's page.

Dr. Bowditch was born in Salem, Mass., August 9, 1808, and died in Boston, January 14, 1902. The son of Nathaniel Bowditch, the great mathematician, and Mary Ingersoll, he was well born in the best sense of a term often much abused. He inherited the scientific if not the mathematical vigor of his father's mind, and from his mother a profound religiousness, which in him was quite independent of a dogmatic theology. For a long time he could not feel at home in any church, partly because the recreancy of the churches as a body to the anti-slavery cause discredited them all in his judgment. He had, moreover, his period of religious doubt, and, once having lost it, he never recovered his confidence in the supernatural character of Christianity; but one would have to read many clerical biographies to come upon one so essentially religious as this is in its ultimate expression. The little Bible that his mother gave him when he was ten years old he carried about with him his whole life long, and not as a mere fetish; to read his favorite passages to his family and friends was one of his purest pleasures.

There is brief but pleasant mention of the Salem life, with pictures of the old house and garden which must have afforded him the beginnings of a liberal education before he went to Harvard in 1825, entering as a sophomore. His college work showed little sign of his mature mind and character. He entered on the study of medicine without any of that enthusiasm which was in general his most characteristic trait, and with a strong æsthetic repulsion to the dissecting room; but he was always subject to the inspiration of men of high character and ability, and in Dr. James Jackson, his chief medical instructor, he found one of these. Going to Paris, shortly, to continue his studies, he found another in the celebrated Louis. His enthusiasm for this great teacher knew no bounds. It quite outran that of Dr. Holmes, who was in Paris at the same time, and who afterwards grew up to Bowditch's appreciation of Louis's master mind. A visit to Louis in 1867 was one of the most striking incidents of one of Dr. Bowditch's later trips to Europe. While studying in Paris he had valuable experience. He saw much of Lafayette, then (1833) seventy-six years old, and dying the next year. Medicine did not exhaust his interest. He attended the lectures of the then celebrated Jouffroy, and sent the philosopher a criticism on them which was not ill conceived. In London, like Garrison and Emerson, he attended the funeral of Wilberforce in Westminster Abbey, but there was little in his emotions to predict his anti-slavery career.

His return to America was hastened by his falling in love and thereby incurring the displeasure of his father and other members of his family. Told with extreme delicacy, the story is a very pretty one, and heightens not a little the interest of a book that has no paucity of interesting matter. The only trouble was that the

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home circle did not know the girl who had engaged his affection, and that his impulsive nature gave them pause. The lovers bore a year of painful incommunication, and then the son wrote such a letter as no good father could resist, and the interdict was removed. The marriage that ensued was of ideal completeness, more finely tempered in the fire of a great sorrow when, in 1863, the eldest son, Nathaniel, whom, as a child, the father had taken to Torrey's funeral and the rendition of Sims, to indoctrinate him with hatred of slavery, died in the great war fought for the maintenance and destruction of that national wrong.

Hardly less significant to Dr. Bowditch than his wedding day was October 21, 1835, the day of the Garrison mob, which made Bowditch an Abolitionist. In this character he was consciously implicated in a great reform, and liked to put on paper his impressions and his recollections of the most notable events. We may have had more exact accounts of some of them, but we have had none more vivid. When Garrison declared for disunion, as Channing had already done and as many Conscience Whigs were doing, Dr. Bowditch dissented from his particular theory, but held fast to the man and to his general work. "I believe," he wrote, "that I am almost the only one in the Board of Managers of the Anti-Slavery Society who does not go for disunion. Possibly I may agree with them at some future time, but at present we are at swords' points upon the subject. But we embrace at the same time that we fight, for we have learned to tolerate differences of opinion when honesty is the foundation." A year later he wrote: "My anti-slavery is rather of the medium stand," and five years later that, while still a member of the Anti-Slavery Board, he sympathized less and less with Garrison's disunion views, but added: "Nevertheless, to Garrison and the Anti-Slavery Society proper, I believe, belongs the honor of ever raising the standard of freedom higher. They do so by their very energy of expression of what I think to be an impracticable plan." Here is one proof, of many, of the absurdity of the too common allegation that no one could work with Garrison without being stretched on his Procrustean bed and cut down to the measure of his personal methods and beliefs.

Nothing was more characteristic of Dr. Bowditch than a vein of frolic humor which crops out frequently in his letters as it did in his life, but he could be serious and strenuous enough on such occasions as the Latimer imprisonment, the Torrey funeral, the Ottoman rendition of 1846, the Shadrach and Craft escapes, and the Sims and Burns renditions. Not even Theodore Parker was a more active member of the famous Vigilance Committee. The account of Shadrach's escape differs materially from Col. Higginson's in his 'Cheerful Yesterdays,' agreeing better with Theodore Parker's more serious view of it. Both the Shadrach and the Craft narratives are pregnant comments on Daniel Webster's anxiety about the two cases as disclosed in his just published letters. In the escape of William and Ellen Craft, Dr. Bowditch enjoyed a part as intimate as Theodore Parker's. His blood was up, and when he was taking William Craft to the place where his wife was in hiding, he pledged himself to the negro to shoot any one who should assail his liberty. The shame and horror of the Sims and Burns renditions have never been described more impressively than here. We are made, as it were, living witnesses of those monstrous crimes. It is almost a pity that the Anti-Man-Hunting League had never an opportunity to try its ingenious tactics on a kidnapper. They do not appear to have been ill-conceived.

The interest of the second volume of this biography is distinctly inferior to that of the first, in spite of a great deal of excellent matter, most of it taken from Dr. Bowditch's letters and journals. In the civil war his urgency, at first despised by Wilson and neglected even by Sumner, effected a great improvement in the ambulance system. As medical examiner of Massachusetts volunteers and substitutes, he obeyed one of the most erratic impulses of his life in branding a Canadian deserter from the British army, who offered himself for enlistment. There are interesting, but not first-hand, reminiscences of John Brown, and notes of European travel that give us pause, not doubtful, but highly satisfactory. A night walk in East London under a policeman's shield, and a visit to Strasbourg just after the bombardment of 1870, are two of the more important subjects dwelt upon. A chapter on Dr. Bowditch's "Medical Work" has the brevity appropriate to a book intended for the general reader, not for the medical specialist, but it is made sufficiently plain that he held an advanced line in his profession, both as instructor and as practitioner, especially in respect to auscultation, paracentesis thoracis, and lung and heart diseases generally. When a Boston paper made a bid for a boycott that would punish his anti-slavery activity, he registered a vow in his journal that he would live or die in Boston, practising his profession there or nowhere, and that he would have an opinion on any subject that attracted him, and express it when and where he chose. He did not think he should be prevented from doing this, and he was not.

A closing chapter tells with due reserve the story of his failing health and welcome end. A succession of portraits is convincing that the exterior semblance of the man expressed the habit of his soul.

The Story of My Life. By Helen Keller. With her letters (1887-1901), and a supplementary account of her education, including passages from the reports and letters of her teacher, Anne Mansfield Sullivan, by John Albert Macy. Doubleday, Page & Co. 1903.

Here is a biography of a deaf and blind girl written by herself—a book which can be considered from so many points of view that the choice is bewildering. To the writer of this article its chief interest lies in corroborating a long-cherished theory that the greater part of the authors of the present day are made, not born. Most of us write because other people have written, because the idea of writing is attractive; our only genius being a certain facility in combining fragments of other people's observations and ideas so as to hide the joinings and give an appearance of unity and newness. Eyes have we, but we see not; we hear not with our own ears, solely through the eyes and ears of others. In Helen Keller's life and education we have an experiment tried under perfect conditions, showing how little essential are observation and experience to the trade of author. All her knowledge is hearsay knowledge, her very sensations are for the most part vicarious, and yet she writes of things beyond her power of perception with the assurance of one who has verified every word.

It seems cruel to criticise this unfortunate girl who has made so much of nothing, whose life has been one long courageous effort to overcome her terrible disadvantages. No one can help feeling the utmost sympathy for her deprivations, the greatest admiration for her pluck. And yet the criticism must be expressed, not so much for her own sake as because her writing exemplifies in a wonderful way the disregard of a principle for which writers who have the true vocation would lay down their lives. Literary sincerity is so entirely absent from it that the subject spills over from the domain of literature into that of ethics. If she were to be judged like less afflicted mortals, we should have to call a great deal of Miss Keller's autobiography unconscientious. Here are some examples of the illegitimate use of the imagination. There are countless others:

"The glorious bay lay calm and beautiful in the October sunshine, and the ships came and went like idle dreams; those seaward going, slowly disappeared like clouds that change from gold to gray; those homeward coming sped more quickly, like birds that seek their mother's nest" (p. 225).

"The rooms are large and splendidly furnished; but I must confess, so much splendor is rather oppressive to me" (p. 227).

"I shall have to content myself with a stroll in the Gardens. Somehow, after the great fields and pastures and lofty pine groves of the country, they seem shut-in and conventional. Even the trees seem citified and self-conscious" (p. 245).

"Virgil is serene and lovely, like a marble Apollo in the moonlight. Homer is a beautiful animated youth in the full sunlight with the wind in his hair" (p. 111).

"Venus [of Medici] entranced me. She looked as if she had just risen from the foam of the sea, and her loveliness was like a strain of heavenly music" (p. 250).

Doubtless it seems unfair to call Helen Keller to account for sins which others commit unrebuked every day. It is part of her misfortune that they can be proved against her, when, in other cases, short of actual plagiarism, we can only suspect. At the great mistake in Helen Keller's life the editor points when he says: "All her life she has been trying to be like other people" (p. 173). If it could have been brought home to her that such likeness in her case could be attained only by the sacrifice of truth; if she could only realize that it is better to be one's self, however limited and afflicted, than the best imitation of somebody else that could be achieved! One sees a dawning consciousness of this great truth in one of the last letters of the book, to Mr. Copeland, her instructor in English composition at Radcliffe, dated December 20, 1900:

"I have always accepted other people's experiences and observations as a matter of course. It never occurred to me that it might be worth while to make my own observations and describe the experiences peculiarly my own. Henceforth I am resolved to be myself, to live my own life, and write my own thoughts when I have any" (p. 273).

It is a pity that she did not keep to this

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resolution in her autobiography, which was presumably written after the letter.

There is another reason for regretting that Helen Keller has not confined herself to that which is within her own knowledge. In this making herself over on the every-day pattern, we lose what she could teach us by showing wherein she varies from the normal. It seems almost as if every fact of real psychological value had been perversely withheld; the few observations of importance that she does record being so mingled with her imaginings in regard to the perceptions of others as to be worthless. One resents the pages of second-hand descriptions of natural objects, when what one wants is a sincere account of the attitude, the natural attitude, towards life of one whose eyes and ears are sealed. Of what use are such records as these?—

"Mr. Chamberlin initiated me into the mysteries of tree and wild flower, until with the little ear of love I heard the flow of sap in the oak, and saw the sun glint from leaf to leaf" (p. 122).

On the other hand, some accurate observations of the manner in which the senses of touch and smell can play substitute to the missing ones would be of real scientific value. It would seem, also, as if Miss Keller's limitations might develop instinctive, indefinable powers, similar to those which animals possess; as if what we call, for want of a more accurate term, the spiritual sense, meaning the reaching out toward the unseen and eternal, might in her case yield much of interest, if not of actual value. But of such things we are told only enough to arouse the desire for more, as, for instance, when she writes:

"Frequently, as we emerge from the shelter of a cove or inlet, I am suddenly conscious of the spaciousness of the air about me. Whether it comes from the trees that have been heated by the sun, or from the water, I can never discover" (p. 120).

In another place she says, speaking of the differences between town and country, that her whole body is alive to the conditions about her (p. 124); but she does not analyze this consciousness.

Helen Keller has attained a certain facility in writing, as, indeed, almost any one would to whom it was nearly the sole medium of human intercourse. To the fine quality of her brain her achievements in actual examination testify. She is said to have wit, but the specimens given seem evidence to the contrary. She shows real penetration, however, when she speaks of toleration requiring the same effort of brain that it takes to balance one's self on a bicycle (p. 295). When she defines beauty as a form of goodness (p. 216), she is merely repeating one of those mystical sayings that have truth only for those who do not think for themselves.

The editor naïvely explains some of the contradictions in the book by reminding the reader that Miss Keller wrote many things in her autobiography for the fun of writing them (p. 283). He does not seem to be aware that he thus makes himself her keenest critic. Can there be a greater sin, from a literary point of view—not to speak of a moral one—than to advance opinions for the fun of writing them, regardless of the truth thereof?

The Private Life of the Romans. By Prof. H. W. Johnston of Indiana University. Chicago: Scott, Foresman & Co. 1903.

This is by far the best introduction to the subject which we have ever seen. Very well adapted as a handbook, to be consulted by students of the Latin authors who need to know something about the manners and customs of the men in the midst of whom these authors lived, it will serve also as a good résumé to which lecturers on Roman private life can send their classes for information on the broader outlines of their course, thus saving for themselves time to speak upon details and mere difficult points. The book is clearly written and its contents are well arranged. It lays claim to no originality, being drawn entirely from the best French and German sources; for few save Frenchmen and Germans have produced much that is original in this field. Of these a good bibliography is given. Among the twelve chapters, those on amusements, the Roman name, the development of the house, and in particular the chapter on the family, deserve special praise. A full index renders consultation easy.

There is, however, no list of the sources of the illustrations, a great desideratum in such a book, and some of the illustrations seem to have nothing to do with the Romans; for example, that of a jointed doll, found, we believe, on the Athenian Acropolis; the necklace of amulets, here called *crepundia*, which came from the Crimea; the Greek vase paintings of the mortar and pestle and of the parasol. The so-called *bisellium* is a humbug which has often been exposed, and the explanation of one of the Pompeiian forum scenes as "the sale of a slave" is a strange novelty. On the whole, the pictures are the least satisfactory part of the book. We wish that they had been more carefully selected and all relegated to a few pages at the end of the book. Then the reading matter could have been printed on a paper neither so shiny as to hurt the eyes, nor so loaded down with whatever the substance is that makes American books illustrated with process cuts such a burden to hold in the hand.

BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Batson, E. M. A Book of the Country and Garden. E. P. Dutton & Co. $3.
Bell, J. J. Wee Macgreegor. Harpers. $1.
Brandes, George. Poland. Macmillan.
Bryce, James. Studies in Contemporary Biography. Macmillan. $3.
Carpenter, E. J. The American Advance. John Lane.
Caster, Andrew. Pearl Island. Harpers.
Chamberlin, F. C. A Blow from Behind. Boston: Lee & Shepard.
Copenhaver, Laura S. An Adventurous Quest. Philadelphia: Lutheran Publication Society. $1.25.
Corbin, John. A New Portrait of Shakspere. John Lane.
Curtis, W. E. The Turk and his Lost Provinces: Greece, Bulgaria, Servia, Bosnia. Fleming H. Revell Co.
Diary and Letters of Wilhelm Müller. Edited by P. S. Allen and J. T. Hatfield. Chicago: University Press.
Du Bois, W. E. B. The Souls of Black Folk. Chicago: A. C. McClurg & Co.
Eliot, C. W. More Money for the Public Schools. Doubleday, Page & Co. $1.
Elizabeth's Children. John Lane.
Fischer-Hansen, Carl. Om Amerika. Brentano.
Griggs, E. H. A Book of Meditations. New edition. B. W. Huebsch.
Hadden, J. C. Haydn. (The Master Musicians.) London: J. M. Dent & Co.; New York: E. P. Dutton & Co. $1.25.
Halsey, F. W. Women Authors of Our Day in their Homes. James Pott & Co. $1.25.
Henniker, Florence. Contrasts. John Lane.
Hyne, Cutcliffe, Capt. Cuttle, K. C. B. Federal Book Company.
Lavignac, Albert. Musical Education. Translated by Esther Singleton. D. Appleton & Co.
Lawson, W. R. American Industrial Problems. McClure, Phillips & Co.
Lemon, Don. A Book of Curious Facts. Edited by Henry Williams. New Amsterdam Book Co. 75 cents.
MacGrath, Harold. The Grey Cloak. Indianapolis: Bobbs-Merrill Co.
Mackie, Pauline B. The Voice in the Desert. McClure, Phillips & Co.
Peet, L. H. Trees and Shrubs of Prospect Park, Brooklyn, 755 Ocean Ave.: The Author.
Penzance, Baron. A Judicial Summing up of the Bacon-Shakspere Controversy. Edited by M. H. Kinnear. London: Sampson Low, Marston & Co.; Boston: W. B. Clark Co.
Sangster, Margaret E. When Angels Come to Men. Fleming H. Revell Company.
Sedgwick, Jane M. Love Songs from the Greek. (The Lover's Library.) John Lane.
Thackeray, W. M. The Yellowplush Papers. Edited by Walter Jerrold and illustrated by Charles E. Brock. London: Dent; New York: Macmillan.
The Kaiser's Speeches. Forming a Character Portrait of Emperor William II. Translated by Wolf von Schierbrand. Harpers.
The Musician's Library: (1) Twenty Original Piano Compositions, Franz Liszt, $1.25; (2) Fifty Songs, Robert Franz, $1.25. Boston: Oliver Ditson Co.; New York: Charles H. Ditson & Co.
Tolstoy, Leo. Resurrection. Translated by Louise Maude. (Players' Edition.) Dodd, Mead & Co. $1.50.
Ulmann, Albert. A Landmark History of New York. New ed. D. Appleton & Co.
Until Seventy Times Seven. Thomas Whitaker.
Van Zile, E. S. Perkins, the Fakeer. The Smart Set Publishing Company. $1.
Wagner, Charles. The Better Way. Translated by Mary L. Hendee. McClure, Phillips & Co.
Washburn, jr., W. D. Some Rejected Verse. The Knickerbocker Press.
Whitcomb, Merric. A History of Modern Europe. (Twentieth Century Textbooks.) D. Appleton & Co.
White, Mary. More Baskets and How to Make Them. Doubleday, Page & Co. $1.
Whitson, J. H. Barbara: A Woman of the West. Boston: Little, Brown & Co.
Wilamowitz-Möllendorff, U. Von Timotheos: Die Perser. Leipzig: J. C. Hinrichs; New York: Lemcke & Buechner. 3.50 marks. Also, Der Timotheos Papyrus. Lichtdruck-Ausgabe. Lemcke & Buechner. 3.50 marks.
Wilson, W. R. A. A Rose of Normandy. Boston: Little, Brown & Co.
Woods, Bertha Gerneaux. Verses. Washington: Neale Pub. Co.

"It is to be wished that the ruthless devourers of the novels that sell by the hundred thousand would turn aside for the moment to such a book as "LORD LEONARD THE LUCKLESS," $1.50, says *The Providence Journal*, in an editorial headed "The Two Norrises."

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